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Joint IBE-Unesco publication
Compulsory Education and its Prolongation

COMPULSORY EDUCATION IN SOUTH ASIA AND THE PACIFIC

Report of the Bombay Conference, December 1952

UNESCO

Published in May 1954 by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization
19 avenue Kléber, Paris-16e
Printed by Drukkerij Meijer Wormerveer (Holland)

Printed in Holland
ED. 53. V. 14 A

PREFACE

This booklet is the outcome of the Regional Conference on Compulsory Education held in Bombay in December 1952, and is published in conformity with Resolution 1.232 of the Sixth Session of the General Conference of Unesco.

The importance of the topic discussed, and the value of the meeting which brought together leading educators from 15 states are factors that decide the shape given to this publication. A summary record of proceedings and recommendations would perhaps serve the needs of those who attended the conference. But the Secretariat of Unesco has attempted instead to present an interpretative report; the educational realities of South Asia and the Pacific are the context within which discussions took place; and the account of the discussions has a more permanent interest when it can be related both to such realities and to the aspirations of the peoples whose educational leaders had come together.

Accordingly, it is hoped that the present volume may do more than record the acts of a conference. It should serve, in South Asia and the Pacific, to carry to the many thousands of teachers and administrators the general sense of the meeting, the ideas and policies proposed, and thus provide a stimulus to further study and discussion at a local level. Moreover, educational problems of a similar order confront many other parts of the world; if this account of the Bombay conference assists educators in other regions to examine their own problems of compulsory schooling in a fresh light, the aims of Unesco will be still further advanced.

The portions of the text dealing with the conference proper were prepared by the Secretariat from minutes and summary records maintained during the conference. For the factual background, two main sources were used: a working document submitted by the Secretariat to the conference and therefore cross-checked, and the various national texts sent by governments for the 1953 edition of Unesco's *World Survey of Education* (now in the press).

It is fitting to record here the debt of gratitude owed by Unesco to the Government of India, the Member State which generously acted as host to the conference. And particular thanks

are due to those authorities and individuals on whom the burden of organization lay most heavily, to whose hospitality and efficiency much of the credit for the success of the meeting should surely go: the Government of India, the Government of Bombay State, the Municipality of Bombay, the University of Bombay, the Jehangir Art Institute, Shri G. S. Bajpai, Shri D. R. N. Desai, Shri P. R. Nayak, a host of government officials, educators, professors, students and the local staff working for Unesco.

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INTRODUCTION

It is a commonplace among educators to say that between 50 and 60 per cent of the world's population is still illiterate and that about an equal proportion of children of school age remain without any schooling whatsoever. In the twentieth century world, which has grown more compact than ever and in which the destinies of nations are so linked together, this situation is a grave one indeed, the more so as with illiteracy go other social ills—a low standard of living, poverty and a high rate of disease.

Both national authorities and international circles are becoming increasingly aware of this undesirable and dangerous situation. The Universal Declaration of Human Rights states in its Article 26 that everyone has a right to education, that education shall be free at least in the elementary and fundamental stages and that elementary education shall be compulsory. The Constitution of Unesco requires the Organization to give a fresh impulse to popular education and the spread of culture and to work for equality of educational opportunity, without regard to race, sex or any economic and social distinctions; and accordingly Unesco has undertaken a wide programme for stimulating education round the world, education for adults as well as for children. National states, for their part, are almost universally expanding their educational facilities.

Convinced that the effective method of eliminating ignorance lies in a long-term programme to provide free and compulsory education for all children of school age, Unesco launched such a programme by holding an international conference in Geneva in July 1951 in collaboration with the International Bureau of Education. This conference, attended by representatives of Ministries of Education from 49 states, adopted a recommendation[1] which outlines the main principles that should govern the application of free and compulsory education. The recommendation has been very widely disseminated and has been translated into a number of languages.

To pursue the campaign in a practical way Unesco has used several lines of approach. A series of national and comparative

[1] Recommendation no. 32 printed in Unesco-IBE publication no. 135, *XIVth International Conference on Public Education*, Paris-Geneva, 1951.

studies have been made on the compulsory education problem and 11 of these have been published to date. The Organization began sending missions of experts to advise Member States in various parts of the world on questions of compulsory education, teacher training and school curricula; and, as a necessary complement to such action, a number of fellowships and scholarships in these fields have been made available to educators. Not content with this, the Organization has planned a series of regional conferences for the purpose of studying on the spot and in some detail the problems of compulsory education common to each region.

The plan calls for five regional conferences, one for South Asia and the Pacific, already held in 1952 and to which this report is devoted, a second for the Middle East in 1954, a third for Latin America in 1956, a fourth for Africa in 1958, and a fifth for the Far East in 1960.

It is not by accident that the region of South Asia and the Pacific was chosen for holding the first regional conference. In this area live more than 600 million people, representing about one-fourth of the population of the globe. Nine out of the 14 states in the region have secured their independence since the second world war, and these states are anxious to consolidate their national existence and to reconstruct their national life. They are fully conscious of the role of education in this process of regeneration. In spite of financial and other difficulties, they are making every effort to expand their educational system in order to reduce illiteracy among their people and to raise cultural and living standards.

These considerations led to the decision to hold the first regional conference on free and compulsory education in South Asia and the Pacific. The Government of India kindly agreed to act as host to the conference, with the city of Bombay as the place of meeting. Extensive preparations were made for the conference. Studies on compulsory education were prepared by national specialists for 11 of the sovereign countries of the region; and while no studies were made for Afghanistan, Burma and Nepal, Unesco educational missions had previously surveyed education in both Afghanistan and Burma, so that their reports were available for the conference. In addition, the administering authorities of Mauritius, New Caledonia and New Guinea presented reports on the state of compulsory education in these territories. The Secretariat of Unesco prepared working papers on the three main themes selected for discussion by the commissions of the conference; as the working papers were theoretical, each carried in an annex a supporting document which summarized the relevant facts for

the region as a whole. In addition, Unesco prepared an exhibition showing the development of the ideas of education for all and of compulsory education, and illustrating the problems facing compulsory education and some of the activities and services of the modern school. In collaboration with the International Bureau of Education an international exhibition of primary school textbooks and curricula was arranged. A number of Member States also supplied exhibits illustrating aspects of their educational systems: Australia, France, India, Indonesia, Pakistan, Thailand and the United States of America were thus represented.

The conference was attended by representatives of 15 of the 18 States situated in the region or administering territories in it.[1] In all, 39 delegates, 20 observers and 4 experts were invited by Unesco to assist in the discussion and the framing of the recommendations. The full list of participants will be found in Appendix B.

The conference was opened by the Governor of Bombay, Shri Grija Shankar Bajpai, on Friday 12 December 1952. Shri Dinkar Rao N. Desai, the Minister of Education of Bombay State, was elected chairman of the conference. Three commissions were set up: a commission on the administrative, financial and legislative aspects of compulsory education; a commission on the curriculum; a commission on teacher training for compulsory education. After a number of plenary meetings, where general questions were discussed, the conference broke up into the three commissions. These spent almost a week in discussing the topics entrusted to them and formulated recommendations which were unified by a drafting committee and submitted to the conference at subsequent plenary meetings. The recommendations, after modifications, were adopted by the conference unanimously. The conference came to an end in the afternoon of 22 December. The recommendations are reproduced at the end of this volume (see Appendix A). They have already been communicated to Member States of the region for possible action and to all other Member States of Unesco for information.

The present report on the conference is a free rather than formal account of the proceedings. The first chapter takes up the question of compulsory education on broad lines and attempts to formulate the principal problems requiring study and action. This is followed by a factual survey of compulsory education in the South Asian and Pacific region—a highly condensed chapter since so many different educational systems are reviewed. Against this background comes the report of the discussions at the Bombay

[1] Afghanistan, Australia, Ceylon, France, India, Indonesia, Laos, Netherlands, New Zealand, Pakistan, Philippines, Thailand, United Kingdom, United States of America and Viet-Nam. Burma, Cambodia and Nepal were not represented.

conference, presented in such a way as to bring out the main preoccupations of the participants and the reasoning which preceded the formulation of general recommendations. A brief conclusion completes the text. In appendices are given the important conference documents: the recommendations themselves, the list of members, one of the working papers on international action, and a bibliography.

CHAPTER ONE

THE GENERAL ISSUE

It is no exaggeration to say that the provision of educational facilities for every child in the world is a main problem of contemporary society. For the bulk of humanity in Asia, Africa, Central and South America and parts of Europe and Oceania the schools are inadequate and often non-existent. Yet the problem has been solved during the past century by individual nations in Europe and North America and by a few states in the other continents. In these cases, the progress of compulsory education has accompanied great advances in science and technology, the growth of democracy and rising prosperity and standards of life. It would, of course, be false to regard the spread of education as the cause of progress on other fronts, but the two sets of factors are undoubtedly interrelated. While developments in science, technology, economics and politics created the necessary wealth and provided the ideological basis for extending schooling to all sections of the population, in its turn compulsory education has given the nations the human resources needed for further progress.

The various states and territories of the world today differ widely in their degree of development. The most advanced human groups make the fullest possible use of their resources, push the frontiers of science ever further, improve social conditions and open educational opportunities to all their members. At the other extreme are the primitive societies living close to a nature they are not equipped to conquer, wresting a bare living from the soil. No nation is uniformly 'advanced' and it is characteristic of the more mature states—in terms of their social and political organization—that they strive to level up inequalities of opportunity and adopt certain minimum standards for their people as a whole. Measured by these standards, or by the much vaguer concept of 'development', the states and territories of the world are strung out along the line of progress, some well advanced, the majority retarded to a greater or lesser extent.

In our time attention has been focused on these wide variations. Word has passed round the globe that such a situation must not continue, that its continuance is a direct threat to peace and to civilization, that the backward states and territories must

catch up with the rest of the advanced world, and that help must be given by those who are advanced if a common human standard of life is to be attained. In this world trend, education necessarily plays a central role, both in its elementary compulsory stage, which extends horizontally to every future citizen, and in its secondary, vocational and higher stages, which extend vertically to a more restricted but increasing number of citizens. Compulsory education is a minimum goal. It ensures that the ablest go on to further education and provides a basis for all other social and economic advances. The compulsory school is a channel for bringing modern knowledge within the reach of every member of the community—knowledge that may be used for the welfare of the individual and the group in a way that is impossible in an illiterate society. By doing so, it helps to consolidate human achievements and serves as so much ground gained in the march towards further achievement. If human society is to attain its aim of prosperity for all and enlightened living in a peaceful world, that goal is indeed unthinkable without a minimum of education for all, a minimum which would rise continuously as society advances.

The attainment of this goal on a world-wide scale is still far off, but it is implied in the programmes of national governments and of the international agencies which these governments have set up. The problem must be broken down into more manageable units. One such 'region' is here singled out, South Asia and the Pacific. It was in this area that Unesco organized the first regional conference on compulsory education, in an effort to make the discussion of compulsory education more realistic and practical than would be possible in an international setting. The further analysis of the problem of compulsory education therefore refers particularly to conditions in this region.

MAGNITUDE OF THE PROBLEM

Not only has the region of South Asia and the Pacific a population of more than 600 million, but its birthrate is extremely high. In the past, this was partly checked by a high mortality rate, particularly among children; but the advance of modern medicine has considerably increased the chances of life for the young. At present, the ratio between the child and adult populations of the region is much higher than in most of the advanced countries. For example, the child population between the ages of 6 and 12 in England represents little more than 8 per cent of the total population, whereas the corresponding figure for South Asia is at least 15 per cent. Indeed, there are countries where this age-group

amounts to as much as 19 per cent of the total population (Malaya, Philippines). The educational and financial load which these countries will have to carry when they apply universal compulsory education is proportionately twice that of most European states; yet the region is preponderantly agricultural, with average national incomes far below those of Europe or North America. There is here, then, the double problem of number of children and available resources; the task ahead is extremely serious, calling for courage, a knowledge of the facts and skilful planning on the part of educational leaders.

PLANNING

Almost all the countries of the region are expanding their educational facilities, but mere expansion without planning may be too slow to overtake the high birthrate. The population of the region grows by 1 to 1½ per cent per year (some 6 to 9 millions), and this irreducible minimum of school places must be provided annually. Moreover, unplanned expansion may be erratic, moving faster in one year and slower in another, according to temporary political or financial factors, with consequent loss of efficiency.

Some governments have laid down plans for expanding their educational systems with a view to the ultimate attainment of free and compulsory education. Most of these plans, however, are general in form and are more like a global estimate of the task ahead and the expenditure needed than detailed step-by-step programmes attempting to show the way to gradual progress. In some countries, indeed, the basic data on population, national income and the like are not sufficiently available or dependable to permit of detailed planning.

ADMINISTRATION

The application of compulsory education requires the setting-up of new administrative machinery or the expansion of present administrative arrangements. The administration of education is clearly conditioned by the general administrative structure of the state. This may differ as between a federal and a unitary state, or as between centralized and decentralized forms of government. From the point of view of education, the central government may limit itself to encouraging education, providing financial help and limited lines of policy, while considering education as primarily the concern of local authorities. At the other extreme, the state

may assume full responsibility for education, frame the basic laws, control the administration, establish programmes, conduct the training of teachers and assume the main financial burden.

Both types of administration exist in South Asia and the Pacific, in countries which are, or have been until recently, under British or American influence, and have on the whole stronger local and provincial administrative institutions. In them, provincial and local initiative in the field of education is apparent. In other countries the government largely controls education from the capital.

The problem is how to mobilize all available effort, central, provincial and local, for the development of free and compulsory education. This is true not only for the states with decentralized administration, where a great deal will have to depend on local initiative, but also in states with centralized administration. In a region where so many millions of children need to be put to school, it is difficult to see how compulsory education can be realized exclusively by the efforts of a central government. Even highly centralized states in Europe have found it necessary to delegate to the local authorities a great deal of the responsibility for compulsory education. The problem is the more important in view of the fact that compulsory education is intimately connected with almost every home, and its successful application is dependent on the interest and goodwill of parents, of small and large communities in villages, on local councils in large administrative units, as well as on provincial and state administrations.

At the national level, other departments of state besides education are involved; among these are: ministries or departments of the interior, social affairs, health, agriculture, finance and information and publicity. A co-operative ministry of the interior, with its set of provincial and district offices, can give a decisive impulse to the campaign for compulsory education. A ministry of finance which does not content itself with the negative policy of checking over-expenditure but adopts a policy of finding the means for the extension of education, can become a real force in the movement. Both health and agricultural ministries have a direct interest in the schools and their curricula; the ministry of health may co-operate by ensuring the medical care of the children, while the ministry of agriculture can advise and assist in agricultural education, in the establishment of farm schools, and in the training of rural teachers. A rational policy of land tenure will go a long way towards reducing poverty among farmers, one of the greatest obstacles to compulsory education in rural areas. A ministry of social affairs might institute a programme of assistance and advice to poor homes, while a ministry of information might employ all

the means of press, film and radio to popularize the idea of compulsory education, to explain the plan for its realization, and to gather increasing public support in its favour. In order that all these things shall happen, the establishment of free and compulsory education should become a matter of national policy to be pursued by most if not all departments of the state.

Finally, each country needs to study for itself the best way to utilize private and philanthropic agencies for the provision of education outside the state framework.

THE CURRICULUM

Closely allied to the problem of opening an ever-increasing number of schools for children of school age, there is the problem of the content of the education to be given. Much of the South Asian and Pacific region has for two or three centuries been subject to foreign rule, and the primary school curriculum is largely inspired by Western models, mainly English, French, American and Dutch. Yet these curricula are the product of cultures which have a Greco-Roman background, modified by a Christian outlook and the scientific, philosophic, social and political developments of the past three centuries. In the West the curriculum of the universities was traditionally dominant; it was boiled down to suit the pupils in secondary schools, and then still further boiled down supposedly to suit young children of primary school age. This process has of late been criticized in the West itself as relying on a faulty psychology and bearing little relation to the interests and life needs of the children. There is therefore a tendency in advanced countries to remodel the primary school curriculum so as to relate it to the realities of child growth and to the need for incorporating children in the life of the community.

Nevertheless, the traditional curriculum of the Western type reigns supreme in most of the countries of South Asia and the Pacific, having acquired its prestige from the high regard in which Western civilization is held and from the fact that through examinations, certificates and diplomas, it prepares students for coveted government jobs. Yet the heritage of South Asia and the Pacific is quite distinct from that of the West. Its main sources derive from Chinese civilization in the north-east, from India in the centre, and from Islamic civilization coming out of western Asia. In the sweep of almost 40 centuries, there emerged a succession of civilizations fully as varied and as rich as those of the Western world. In the course of time, the peoples of this region have developed their own spiritual and intellectual outlooks, their own codes of

ethics and moral values, their own manners, customs and forms of dress, their ways of doing things and earning their living, their arts, literatures, music and architecture. They will naturally want to preserve the distinctive elements of this cultural heritage and will utilize the schools for the purpose — a fact which is of tremendous significance to the curriculum.

Moreover, the countries of this region have their own national and political aspirations. They are trying to consolidate their national existence, to cement their internal unity, to find their rightful place in the community of nations and to realize a democratic form of life. They are trying to improve their economy by improving agriculture, establishing new industries and preserving their own handicrafts, some of which are of great artistic value. At the same time, they are attempting to improve their health conditions. Accordingly, the new curriculum must take account of all these things in order to help raise the standard of living and create a body of citizens which is at home in a democratic society and in a peaceful community of nations.

Although the leading educators of the region are aware of this problem, attempts at establishing new types of curricula are comparatively recent. Some of the new experiments and trends are indeed promising if they are continued in a spirit of experimentation. But a great deal remains to be done. The problem is not simply how and in what direction to modify the curriculum, but who is to have the responsibility — and how far local authorities, schools and individual teachers will be free to develop their own curricula. There is also the problem of bringing the instruments of research and experimentation to bear on the matter in a region where educational and psychological research is still in its infancy.

DURATION OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION

The question of how long schooling should be compulsory is important, as the answer bears on the curriculum as well as on financial provisions. In Western countries, a period of eight years is usual, extending from the age of 6 to 14. Most of the underdeveloped countries, especially in South Asia, find this period too long and costly to make their compulsory education plans realistic. The problem then is to determine the minimum duration of the compulsory school if it is to ensure permanent literacy and a modicum of education that will turn the individual into a useful citizen. Various answers have been given to this question. There have been in places, mostly outside South Asia, advocates of a three-year school. Most countries of South Asia and the Pacific have

adopted a school of four, five or six years as a means of ensuring that the child will not revert to illiteracy after leaving school. Some authorities have advocated what is known as 'functional literacy' and consider that seven years is the shortest possible course for educating a useful citizen. The problem, however, is far from solved, and its solution depends on the one hand upon the resources of the country concerned and on the other on the conceptions prevalent among educators in each country as to what constitutes an effective compulsory school. The conference at Bombay had recommendations to offer on this question.

THE PROBLEM OF WASTAGE AND RETARDATION

A related difficulty is that of the gradual diminution of pupils from grade to grade, producing a pyramidal effect, with a broad base to the pyramid, tapering off to a pointed top in the upper classes. This loss of pupils may be so great that about half the children attending school are found in the two lowest classes, with enrolment in the second grade at times no more than 60 per cent of that of the first grade. Scientific studies of this phenomenon and of its causes are rare. It is partly due to children going to work as they grow older. Another reason may be retardation, where children fail to be promoted regularly from year to year; in some school systems, as many as 30 per cent of the children of each grade are failed and obliged to repeat the year's work. This may indicate an overcrowded curriculum which is beyond the abilities of the children, or poor methods of instruction or a faulty educational outlook where standards of attainment become paramount in the minds of teachers. Whatever the causes, the fact remains that a large proportion of the children leave school before having completed even three grades, and for the most part, therefore revert to illiteracy. There is here a tremendous waste of effort and money which the countries of South Asia with their limited resources can ill afford.

RELATION BETWEEN PRIMARY AND FUNDAMENTAL EDUCATION

When the countries of Western Europe and North America established their systems of compulsory education in the last century, they eliminated illiteracy by the gradual process of educating the children. This took a generation or two and sometimes more. The problem is different today. Life moves much faster. In the nineteenth century, nations could wait for the gradual spread of

education. The problem is much more urgent for the under-developed nations of today, which cannot afford to be too gradual in their approach. The rest of the world is moving so rapidly that their slow progress will leave them outdistanced by other nations. On the other hand, modern education in illiterate communities so changes the life and outlook of the young as to create a large gap between them and their parents. The result is conflict as much in the home as in national life, a conflict which leads to youth feeling frustrated and therefore explosive.

For this reason, there have been attempts, especially in the last three decades, to establish educational programmes for illiterate adults. These programmes have gradually been broadened and have come to be known under various names, the most current of which is fundamental education, i.e. an education with a practical bias which, while eliminating illiteracy, attempts to help raise the standard of living of the people. In some countries with very limited resources, the question has been raised whether precedence should be given to the primary education of children or to the fundamental education of those who missed school. Most countries in South Asia are beginning to adopt both programmes at the same time. No serious educator will question that the most effective method of approach is this double attack on ignorance. But the question remains, how to organize the two approaches so that they will strengthen and reinforce each other. At present the two methods are kept more or less apart; a more integrated approach is needed. In some countries, the social welfare centre, with a clinic, a co-operative and staff to conduct agricultural extension and encourage local industries and handicrafts, serves as the focus of this attempt to raise the standard of living. Literacy classes and a school for children are more or less appended to the programme. In other countries, the school itself becomes the centre of this activity and the concept of a 'community school' for both young and adult has arisen. The last word in this respect has not yet been said, and there is room for a great deal of experimentation.

THE PROBLEM OF LANGUAGE

Many of the countries of South Asia face the problem of a multiplicity of languages. In some, there are a large number of languages and dialects ranging from those spoken by many millions to those that are purely local in character and spoken by small communities. Some of the languages are highly developed, with extensive old or modern literatures, while others may still be unwrit-

ten. This naturally creates an educational problem of great significance to the movement for compulsory education.

It would, of course, be in the best interests of effective education to teach young children in their mother tongue, but this policy may come up against practical difficulties, economic, linguistic or political. With the lesser known languages, it implies the writing-down of the language, the creation of new reading materials and the possibility that the children will become literate in a language which gives them little contact with the rest of the world and hardly any reading material after they leave school.

On the political side, some states have fostered a number of the important languages of the country, and have put forth great efforts to prepare an adequate supply of textbooks; one Indian state at least is producing primary school textbooks in 8 or 10 languages.

Other South Asian countries have tended to adopt on grounds of national unity one national official language, and are attempting to make it predominant in the schools. Still others, while adopting a national language, have allowed the mother tongue considerable use in the school, either as a first or a second language. In non-self-governing territories the prevailing practice is either to adopt the language of the administering power as the language of instruction or to begin with the mother tongue and teach the language of the administering power as a second language, until it becomes the language of instruction in the upper grades.

It is evident that the problem of language is very complicated and in the present circumstances policies with regard to languages in education are fluid and changing.

THE TRAINING OF TEACHERS

The problem of the teacher is a crucial one in the field of compulsory education. While educators generally agree with the axiom 'As the teacher is, so is the school', hardly any tenet in the whole field of education is more widely admitted as a principle or more often ignored in practice. Hard pressed by the influx of pupils into the schools, educational administrators are likely to resort to makeshift arrangements and to employ a large number of unqualified teachers. South Asia is no exception. The situation is largely due to lack of foresight and planning, and plans for the extension of compulsory education should be accompanied by parallel plans for the adequate training of teachers. In this connexion, it may be necessary to have recourse to shortened training courses and to emergency teacher training schemes.

But the problem of the supply of teachers is also related to the teaching service. In order to attract men and women of sufficiently good character and in adequate numbers, better conditions of service will have to be offered. This is far from being the case in most of the countries of South Asia. A well-trained teacher enjoying good conditions of service costs much more than the unqualified teacher of the present day, and the question arises how far countries can afford a higher standard of trained teachers.

Another issue is the type of teacher needed and the kind of training he or she should receive. If what has already been said about orienting the curriculum of the primary school towards the local culture and towards the improvement of the standard of living is true, a new type of teacher will be needed, especially if he or she is also to play a role in fundamental education and in community school movements. Most of the population of South Asia still lives in rural areas, and the teacher will be called upon not only to teach the ordinary subjects and orient the curriculum towards practical life, but also to become a community leader. It follows that the rural school teacher needs a special and newer type of preparation. Several of the countries of South Asia are beginning to experiment with rural teacher training.

FINANCE

The most important single obstacle in the way of universal compulsory education is undoubtedly finance. We have already alluded to the fact that most of the countries of South Asia and the Pacific, with the exception of Australia and New Zealand, have to carry the double load of a larger child population and a more meagre national income than the states of Western Europe. Some of the states estimate that, merely for the establishment of universal primary education, they would need an expenditure exceeding the combined total expenditure of their federal, state and local governments. If reliance is to be placed on state revenues alone at the present level, the problem of compulsory education would appear at first sight insoluble. In this regard, the main hope lies in the gradual economic development of South Asia, which would lead to a higher national income and make possible the development of compulsory education. This, however, is a long-term programme which holds out little relief for the present demand for schools.

Some countries of the region are straining themselves to provide the funds for education. In one country, the educational budget is no less than 25 per cent of the national budget. Others

are spending much less, sometimes too little and could certainly spend more. Still others are attempting to reduce the cost of education by getting away from Western standards of expensive buildings and equipment. Schools are being held in the open air, in reed huts, and in other low-cost school houses.

Some states rely considerably on local financing, while others look almost exclusively to the central budget for the financing of their compulsory education system. In almost every case, more reliance needs to be placed on local authorities and on community effort. At the same same time, the possibilities of private financing of education need to be better exploited. Private schools, while encouraged in most of the countries, are less so in others, and in one particular state they hardly exist. There is also evidence that educational expenditure is not always employed to the best purposes or efficiently. A careful evaluation should be made of methods of expenditure as well as of methods of local taxation.

INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE

From the above discussion, one conclusion is inescapable: the realization of free and compulsory education will be a long and an arduous task if it is to depend entirely on the internal resources, both technical and material, of each of the countries and territories of South Asia and the Pacific. The regional conference at Bombay emphasized the international character and world importance of the problem of compulsory education. On the one hand, the achievement of universal schooling is a prerequisite to economic development and, on the other, the problem is linked with that of a prosperous and peaceful world community. There can be no doubt that the prosperity of the world is seriously compromised when one region, representing a fourth of the world's population, has so low a standard of living. With conditions as they are today, this situation leads to social and political unrest and is thus a threat to the peace of the world.

International assistance, both technical and financial, is now being offered in the military and economic fields. By an extension of technical assistance for economic development, some help is being given in the field of education. But it is apparent from the above exposition of the problem that the needs of compulsory education go far beyond the limited assistance being offered. For this reason a number of delegations from the countries of South Asia to Unesco conferences have argued forcefully for international financial assistance in the field of compulsory education.

Such is the broad outline of the question facing South Asia and the Pacific. Before recording the opinions expressed by national educators at the Bombay conference, it will be well to examine in some detail the present state of education in each of the countries of the region.

CHAPTER TWO

THE PRESENT SITUATION

This chapter gives a brief survey of the several educational systems in South Asia and the Pacific. As far as possible only those aspects of education have been treated which have a bearing on the provision of compulsory primary schooling, namely administration, finance and legislation; curriculum; teacher training. Since quantitative data are susceptible of being recorded collectively, the available statistics are reproduced in a single table at the end of the chapter and are not repeated in the separate sections on each country. Because of differing methods of gathering and recording these data, however, the reader is warned that the table has only limited value for comparative purposes.

In the text, the need for conciseness involves a blurring of detail; each country of the region is not equally represented, since the quantity of documentation available in the Unesco Secretariat varies considerably, and for the same reason there is some disparity in the amount of information given for different countries. The descriptive text has been divided into two broad categories, viz. sovereign states and non-self-governing territories, and has been treated countrywise for the sake of giving a clear and connected picture of the situation in each country. One state, Nepal, and several non-self-governing territories could not be included for lack of information.

SOVEREIGN STATES

Afghanistan

Education in Afghanistan is maintained and controlled by the state; no private schools or educational institutions exist in the country. Education at all levels is free and students are provided with books and stationery free of charge. There is no compulsory education in Afghanistan.

The system is highly centralized. The different categories of education are controlled and directed by separate directorates with an overall supervision by the Minister of Education, who is a

member of the Cabinet responsible to Parliament. Promotion and demotion of all officials devolves upon the Minister, although with regard to the higher categories of officials the Minister submits his proposals to the Cabinet for decisions. The central Government has set up educational directorates in each of the 13 provinces to control and direct all regional schools in accordance with Government directives. The directorates, however, function under the administrative control of the provincial governors. Annual inspection of schools is carried out by the central Government through its directorate of inspection, but there is also one inspector for every 10 classes under the provincial directorate. Textbooks, stationery, etc., needed by these schools are procured by the central Government and distributed to the schools through the provincial directorates.

The expenditure on education is met by the central Government from general revenue, though a small proportion is derived from levies on large industrial concerns, e.g. textiles, sugar refineries, etc. Present appropriations for education constitute 16 per cent of the state budget, and expenditure on primary education amounts to about a quarter of the education budget.

The Government has established primary schools throughout the country with the direct design of extending and improving them to serve all the children of primary school age, i.e. 6 plus to 12 plus, but the Afghan school system is at best no more than a beginning of what the Afghan pupil needs; for instance, approximately less than 10 per cent of the boys and one-third of 1 per cent of the girls of primary school age are at present attending school. Moreover, although in the regular primary schools the period of instruction is six years, in practice it is only three or four years for most of the pupils because for each group of 15 entering the first class, only one pupil completes the sixth class. There are also village schools providing only three grades (I to III) housed in village mosques and staffed by local scholars, for which textbooks on subjects of general knowledge are supplied by the central Government. Pupils completing village schools may in favourable circumstances join grade IV of regular primary schools, but in practice this seldom happens. The medium of instruction in the primary and village schools is Persian for Persian-speaking areas, and Pashto for Pashto-speaking areas, with the proviso that the second of the two languages is taken as a compulsory subject.

There are at present two teacher training institutions in Kabul: one a five-year school at post-primary level for primary school teachers, and the other a six-year school at the same level for secondary school teachers. These are boarding schools, and students are maintained at state expense. The curricula of the two training

schools are much the same as those of the ordinary secondary schools except that additional instruction is given in pedagogic theory; there is also provision for practice teaching. The language of instruction is Persian, with some classes in Pashto. English is taught as a foreign language. Teachers of primary schools are civil servants and enjoy security of tenure, pension, leave and other benefits. Their scale of pay is higher than that of other comparable civil servants and their social status is correspondingly high.

The aim of the primary school is to teach Persian and Pashto for the purposes of reading and writing; Arabic, for reading the Koran; arithmetic; elementary geography and history; and simple arts and crafts. The method of teaching generally employed is 'essentially verbalistic, memoriter, authoritarian and dogmatic in character'. There is no co-education and primary schools for boys and girls are quite separate. This is because the goal for female education is to train girls to make them true specimens of their country's positive traditions and staunch followers of their faith, in addition to being good mothers and housewives.

Australia

Australia has six entirely autonomous systems of education. Each state passed its own laws to ensure that all children between certain ages are under efficient instruction, either in schools provided by the state or in some other way. The following State Education Acts amended from time to time form the basis of the present educational systems:

New South Wales. Public Instruction (Amendment) Act No. 51, 1916 (and Amendments); Youth Welfare Act No. 48, 1940 (and Amendments).
Victoria. Education Act, 1945 (and Amendments).
Queensland. State Education Acts, 1875-1948 (and Amendments).
South Australia. Education Acts, 1915-1942 (and Amendments).
Western Australia. Education Act, 1928 (and Amendments).
Tasmania. Education Act, 1932 (and Amendments).

Under the above Acts school attendance is compulsory for children between the ages of 6 and 14, except in Tasmania and in New South Wales where the limits are 6 and 16, and 6 and 15 respectively. Western Australia, South Australia and Victoria have each passed Acts for raising the school age to 15, but they have not yet been implemented. Children educated up to the prescribed standard in institutions other than state schools are exempt from the provisions of the compulsory attendance clauses, as also are children living more than prescribed distances from the nearest state school or those unable to attend through illness, fear

of infection or similar causes. Education of children in isolated areas is provided through correspondence schools. Parents who neglect enrolment of their children either in a state or private school without fulfilling the clauses regarding exemption from attendance in school are subject to summons before a court of summary jurisdiction.

The Australian Commonwealth Office of Education also contributes to the educational policies of the states, though indirectly, through its publications based on research experimentation. The Commonwealth Government in recent years has assumed considerable responsibility in educational affairs, which range from the provision of a small number of schools for aboriginals in the north, to the establishment of a national university at Canberra for high-level research work. These and many other educational activities for which the Commonwealth is responsible do not form a 'system' but their total cost exceeds that of any individual state system. Details of head office organization vary from state to state, but, broadly speaking, the staff under a director or director-general of education falls into two groups. Educational matters, that is, questions of curriculum, the conduct of schools, policy in regard to teaching staff and other matters affecting the educational programme, are dealt with by the chief inspectors or superintendants, assisted by subordinate officers, bearing various titles, and specialist staff, all drawn from the inspectorate or supervisory staffs. The business management of the department, including finance, the building programme, maintenance services, furniture and school supplies, and the details of staff matters are in the hands of clerical staff under a senior officer who is responsible to the director of education. There is no attempt at decentralization except in Queensland, where 'increasing evidence is reaching the department of the advantages that have arisen and can be expected to continue from the decentralization of administration of education'.

The primary education system is similar in many points in all the states. Schools are divided into grades or classes, and pupils are generally classified on the basis of achievement, although age, ability and sometimes sex are taken into account. In larger schools one teacher is responsible for the work of one grade but in smaller schools one teacher may teach two or more grades. There is also a large number of single-teacher schools. In Queensland primary education covers the entire period of compulsory attendance, but in all other states there has been a tendency to limit the length of the primary course so that most, if not all, children receive at least two years of secondary schooling during their compulsory school life.

The annual operating programme of the department of education in each state is financed from revenue derived from general taxation. With minor exceptions, the department itself does not produce revenue from fees, sales or other sources. No fiscal support is derived from local government authorities, apart from monies raised by voluntary local committees. Capital expenditure upon buildings and the establishment of new schools is met from loan funds, which are raised at the national level, a proportion of the resulting funds being allocated to the various states. Within each state allocation a sub-allocation is made for capital expenditure on education.

In Australia the shortage of teachers is grave, due to the urgent need for many more nursery schools and for fuller provision for secondary schools. Many classes in primary and secondary schools are too large. Present enrolment in teachers' colleges barely meets the current demand. Hence, some states have established emergency training schemes to recruit and train ex-servicemen and suitable immigrants. The staff of teacher training institutions has to be highly specialized, and this is also a problem. Experienced teachers with high academic qualifications have been seconded from primary and secondary schools to the training institutions for lecturing. Heads for the new training institutions have been drawn from senior lecturers of existing colleges or school inspectorates.

State teachers' colleges are under the control of the respective state departments of education. These colleges are supported from public funds, and the annual education budget of each state contains an itemized list of expenditure for teacher training, including salaries of staff, student allowances, purchase of materials, equipment, plant, maintenance, etc. There are also several non-state agencies who train teachers, subject to state regulations for registration as teacher training institutions. They have to produce evidence regarding satisfactory state of buildings, equipment, instruction standards and management, and are also limited regarding the maximum number of students to be admitted. All states pay allowances during training at different rates for those living at home and those living away from home. Small book allowances are also paid to students in New South Wales and Western Australia. Queensland and New South Wales also offer special inducements by way of high allowances to adult students.

In all the states the period for teacher training in the different colleges is two years, except for special emergency schemes. The curricula of teachers' colleges are heavily weighted with professional subjects, as the result of which general studies suffer and training takes on a rather narrow professional aspect. Compulsory

subjects are biology, education and psychology, hygiene, handicrafts, social science and speech training. Optional subjects are: art, crafts, literature, geography, history, mathematics, modern languages, music, nature study, physical education, physics, child guidance, English drama, visual education, broadcasting, etc.

The usual procedure is for intending teachers to seek entrance to a teachers' college on completion of the high school course. Intending secondary school teachers receive special training which usually culminates in a university degree or a diploma of education or its equivalent. Teachers holding primary teachers' certificates may apply for and receive one additional year of specialized training in arts and crafts or domestic arts or librarianship or upper-grade education for backward children. To further the education of primary school teachers, in addition to the above, there are vacation courses, refresher courses, schools of method, study leave facilities, the system of exchange of teachers and technical college courses.

Teachers in the state services are public servants with permanent tenure, graded salary scales, access to arbitration by independent tribunals and provision for superannuation benefits. In return they are required to take any post to which appointed, though normally teachers are able to apply for positions and eventually to find posts in localities which suit them. Higher posts in the service are mostly filled by promotion from within the service on the basis of merit and experience, but the element of seniority counts considerably. There is little chance for the bright young man or woman to move forward as rapidly as in freer systems, since in practice it has been found difficult to select senior officers on any basis other than seniority. This allows no scope for brilliant and enterprising people to bring about or even suggest any fundamental modification of the educational system calculated towards further improvement. Teachers are paid a living wage but it is lower than in other comparable professions. The social status of teachers corresponds to their lower economic status. A large proportion of Australia's teachers come from farm and labour groups rather than from government or professional circles. Hence in order to attract bright young people to the teaching profession liberal allowances towards lodging and other training expenses are being offered to trainees in teacher training establishments.

In Australia the primary curriculum has recently been revised with the object of incorporating the best of current educational thought and practice. Courses were broadened with emphasis on experience. The introduction of nature study and civics made the school a more interesting place for both pupils and teachers. The curriculum follows a co-operative pattern in which teachers, par-

ents, the public and representatives of educational agencies participate. Head teachers are almost exclusively held responsible for examinations, and progress is assessed by periodical tests. The child has now become the centre of school activity. Pupil needs and pupil participation are now emphasized rather than formal learning. Great importance is placed upon making the school environment as vital and stimulating as possible in order to develop the character and personality of the child. School aims in Australia put particular emphasis on achievement in both basic skills and knowledge and exercise of social conventions, control of attitude towards oneself, others and things, social experience, cultural activities such as music, art, dancing, craftwork, service for classrooms, playrooms, laboratories, libraries, canteen, etc. The primary school curriculum includes: English, elementary mathematics, nature knowledge, science, geography, history, manual training, singing, physical training and needlework for girls.

Schools in Australia, however, are still in the main subject-centred. The systematic teaching of the basic skills or tool subjects is considered necessary in primary schools. The project approach and activity methods are used in teaching social studies. A forecast on future trends seems to indicate that 'the study unit will eventually supplant teaching in particular fields . . . social studies, science and some phases of English, but systematized teaching in the basic skills or tool subjects will always be a necessary part of the primary school programme'. The courses of study are laid down by the education departments of the states, but teachers have considerable choice in the use of material. The teaching of a particular subject is no longer to be regarded as an end in itself but rather as a means by which a child may receive harmonious development of his personality. Most states have abandoned the old comprehensive examinations. These are now given at the end of the primary school and are designed for selecting pupils for the most suitable types of secondary education and training.

When the training colleges began experimenting with new techniques such as the project method, steps were also taken by the schools to relate their activities to community needs. Rural teachers began to organize young farmers' clubs. It was not, however, until 1934 that the curriculum revision committees encouraged pupil participation in purposeful activities, the organization of extra-school and community projects, clubs, exhibitions and student excursions. Provision has also been made for the adaptation of course content to both pupil needs and the needs of the community in which a school is located.

Curriculum construction and revision is the responsibility of state education departments, which have standing curriculum

committees. The membership of these committees includes senior administrative officers, representatives of teachers' organizations, inspectors, practising teachers nominated by inspectors and representatives of teacher-training colleges. The Australian Council for Educational Research effectively influences construction of curricula through its publication of studies on school theories and practices based on research and experimentation.

Burma

Education is based on a recent education plan for the welfare state approved by the legislature, the aim of which is to ensure that all citizens have a basic knowledge of the three R's and perform their duties as union citizens with the specific object of perpetuating democracy within the union. The constitution of the Union of Burma also accepts in principle a system of free and compulsory primary education for children between the ages of 6 and 10.

The educational system in Burma is highly centralized and full responsibility is vested in the Minister of Education. Under him there is a Secretary to the Government in the Ministry of Education to assist in the formulation of policy and to act as a liaison with other ministries, and a Director of Public Instruction who is charged with the duty of carrying out policies decided upon by the Government. This involves direction and control of all aspects of education including inspection, curriculum, teacher training, provision of schooling, compulsory education, etc. The D.P.I. has four separate divisions under him, each under a responsible officer, to deal respectively with teacher training, curricula, inspection and compulsory education. The headquarters, circles and sub-circles have the necessary complement of staff to administer education at different levels. Since 1952, a five-year plan of educational development has been implemented. This provides the authority with funds to open new schools, train a sufficient number of teachers and run pilot projects in compulsory schooling, as the first stage in the scheme for the full application of compulsory education.

Educational expenses of all state schools are met by the central Government out of funds derived from general revenues. Twenty-five per cent of the total annual budget was allocated for education and welfare in 1952, of which two-thirds was earmarked for education alone. The total expenditure during the year 1952-53 is expected to be 14,897,542 kyats. Education in all state schools is free. Students are also exempted from the expenses of athletics, stationery and library fees. Private schools are not given any grants-in-aid, but through the Mass Education Council grants are

given to 1,000 monastery schools to cover books, equipment and furniture as an indirect means of furthering the cause of adult and fundamental education.

Primary schools consist of four classes (I-IV) for children of 6-10 and the medium of instruction at this stage is Burmese except in schools where the mother tongue of the pupils is a vernacular language. The curriculum includes general subjects and subjects such as general science, school gardening and arts and handicrafts. Efforts are however being made to draw up a suitable curriculum and the work has been entrusted to a special officer. The method of teaching is also being changed. Pupils are to be taught subjects both academic and practical giving them 'a true concept of democracy and with re-orientation of ideas in human relationship'. Arrangements are also being made to use educational aids of various types, particularly educational toys and apparatus, to accelerate the process of learning. Teachers are expected to understand the needs of pupils and of their homes and community and to relate instruction to these requirements. They are also expected to take an active part in community activities and to help the movement for mass education.

There are about 6,440 state primary schools and by 1958 another 1,000 are expected to be opened. Besides the state schools, a large number of private schools are run by Buddhist monks attached to the pagodas and are called monastery schools; Chinese schools organized by resident Chinese, and Indian schools set up by the Indian settlers are considered to be outside the educational system of the country. A pilot project on compulsory education is in operation in an area near Rangoon, having 2,943 children. The age of the pupils in the experimental area is seven to nine years.

There are two teacher training colleges which provide a one-year course for primary teachers and a two-year course for middle school teachers. Hence, pending the setting up of three new teacher training colleges, plans for which have already been formulated, provision has been made for emergency teacher training classes with a shortened course. In the recently approved plan for the welfare state the training of teachers has been given special importance. In the proposed administrative set-up a new division called Teachers Training Division has been placed under an additional assistant director, whose duties will be to organize and develop training colleges for teachers, to initiate measures for the professional improvement of teachers through refresher courses and to expand facilities for emergency teacher training classes and for in-service training of teachers.

The curriculum of teacher training is of the conventional type but is being drastically revised in view of the fact that Burmese has been

made the medium of instruction in the schools and that education now aims also at producing technicians for the welfare state. For this purpose a new post of Director of Teacher Training has been created.

Teachers in the primary schools are servants of the state and enjoy security of tenure and various other benefits such as leave, pensions, etc. Teachers in the private schools, however, including the monastery schools, do not enjoy any of the above privileges. The scales of salaries for teachers in public schools are higher than for those working in the private schools, but lower than those obstaining for other comparable professions. Their social status is is also comparatively low.

Cambodia

Education in Cambodia is regulated to a large extent by laws laid down for the Indo-Chinese Union as a whole by the Order of 21 December 1917. A new educational code, however, is under consideration and a number of measures have already been enforced. The Ministry of National Education is responsible for public education, except for the technical schools, which come under other ministries and the Minister is assisted by a number of advisory commissions. Administration of education, in accordance with the policy laid down by the Minister, is vested in the Director of Public Education, who is an officer of the Ministry and is assisted by a Chief Inspector of Primary Education, 17 primary inspectors and a Director of Physical Training, Sports and Popular Education. There are special religious or lay inspectors under the primary inspector of each province for the supervision of the modernized pagoda schools, and a secondary school inspector, a French university *agrégé*, to look after the secondary schools (*lycées* and colleges) and the teacher training schools. Private schools, provided by Cambodian, Viet-Namese, French and Chinese organizations are allowed, subject to the previous authorization of the Ministry of National Education.

Education is financed by the central Government which meets the entire cost of the salaries of the teaching staff, school supplies, building and maintenance of premises, scholarships, etc. No funds from any other sources are available for education. Expenditure on education represents 18 per cent of the state budget, and about 58 per cent represents expenditure on primary education. No assistance or subventions are granted to private institutions, which are run generally on profit-making lines. There are, however, in the different provinces societies of friends of education who raise voluntary contributions with a view either to building new class-

rooms, or to replacing primitive premises by modern ones. School books and stationery are supplied free to all needy pupils and in particular to those attending village schools. Public education is free at all grades.

The duration of primary and compulsory schooling is six years and the age range is 7 to 13. There are 2,264 primary schools, including the new pagoda schools, and the total enrolment of children is 198,000. About 82,000 children of school age are out of school. The public primary schools (Franco-Khmer primary education) comprise two stages of three years each; the elementary stage (infant class, preparatory class and elementary class) and the complementary stage (first and second year of middle class and higher class). In the infant classes the medium of instruction is Cambodian and this is replaced by French in the preparatory class. At the end of this course, pupils sit for the complementary school certificate (C.E.P.C.). The modernized pagoda schools (Khmer primary education) are run by bonzes and function in the pagoda enclosures. The course lasts three years (infant, preparatory and elementary) and instruction is entirely in Cambodian. At the end of this course pupils obtain the Khmer Elementary School Certificate. The pagoda schools represent a provisional solution to the problem of a shortage of teachers and school premises and are due to be progressively replaced by the public primary schools.

During 1951–52 there were 2,676 teachers, of whom 142 were certificated, the rest professional teachers with a short training course. The Extension of Schooling Plan will require 500 new teachers a year, and the replacement of untrained staff, the reduction of large classes and the conversion of the new pagoda schools into public schools will need an additional 400 teachers a year, but owing to lack of funds provision was made during 1951–52 to train only 500 teachers. Teacher training in Cambodia is controlled and financed by the central Government. The training colleges provide a four-year course, identical to the first cycle of secondary schooling, and then a one-year professional course. Students passing out become *instituteurs stagiaires* (teachers-in-training) and have to put in one year's teaching in a primary school in order to be fully qualified. Short training courses of one month are also recognized by the Government for students with lower secondary education, and successful students are posted as *auxiliaires* (assistant teachers). The progressive passing of tests may lead these *auxiliaires* to become fully-fledged teachers. Promotion to the higher level is dependent upon the completion of two years training and the approval of an inspector. The intake of girls to the training schools and the short training course is limited, with the result that

only 12 per cent of qualified teachers in the country are women. The normal school course gives professional training for one year at an upper secondary level; most attention in the curriculum is given to applied psychology and theory and practice of teaching. With the system of *stagiaires* (teachers-in-training) considerable attention is also given to refresher courses. These last one month and are organized during vacations for teachers and assistants nominated by the inspectorate. All public school teachers are public servants and as such enjoy security of tenure and pension and leave benefits like other civil servants.

The curriculum of the primary school remains almost unchanged from pre-war days and is rather academic and conventional. It was drawn up regionally when there were few schools and was designed for the elite. It therefore fails to meet the requirements of the people as a whole. It takes no account of modern developments in education and psychology and does not help the authorities to implement universal compulsory education. The Government, however, is drawing up plans to carry out a reform of curricula in order to permit of an education which will be more rational and better adapted to the needs of the people.

Bonze teachers of the pagoda schools enjoy similar privileges to those applicable to other monks but are required to take a one-year educational course at post-elementary school certificate level in a school of instruction specially established for them.

Ceylon

The educational system in Ceylon is based on the Education (Amendment) Act V of 1951, under which educational policy is decided by the Minister of Education with the advice of the Board of Education, and the Director of Education is charged with its execution. Education in all schools, including private and unaided ones, is to accord effectively with national interest and general educational policy. Schools are classified as primary (classes I to V), junior secondary (classes VI to VIII), and senior secondary (classes IX and X), and in all schools the medium of instruction will be the mother-tongue, English being only a compulsory subject. The period of compulsory schooling is between the ages of 5 and 14 and exemption from attendance can be given by the director only if he is unable to provide schooling for a child in a school conveniently situated in the area.

The main obstacles to the full application of compulsory schooling are shortage of school buildings and teachers. Attempts are therefore being made to build as many schools as possible and to increase teacher training facilities. In addition, private schools

are encouraged on condition that education and training there are in keeping with the standard in public schools.

Compulsory education is free and the cost is borne by the central Government, although funds are also raised by charging fees for games or physical training on a scale fixed by the director. Inability to pay fees for games or physical training is not penalized; hence payment is virtually on a voluntary basis.

In 1951 there were 42,558 teachers and 1,161,851 pupils. On the basis of a 1:27 teacher-pupil ratio there is a shortage of 473 teachers. There are, however, 12,700 untrained teachers, and provision has to be made either for training them or for replacing them by trained teachers. There are at present 11 Government colleges and 6 denominational colleges for the training of primary and junior school teachers, and the Government training college at Colombo is the only secondary training college. The Director of Education exercises full control over the content and nature of teacher training, and new administrative machinery has been created under him for the drawing up of schemes of work and the supervision of work in the colleges. This set-up has been placed under a chief inspector.

With the educational system changed so as to do away with the distinction between English, Sinhalese and Tamil schools, to provide education through the mother-tongue and to allow the teaching of English as a second language only, the curriculum of training colleges has also been modified. The mother-tongue is given special attention and English has been introduced into all primary training colleges. The curriculum consists of compulsory subjects such as theory and practice of education, health and physical education, Sinhalese or Tamil, English, handicrafts and horticulture for men and home science for women. In addition a choice of two optional subjects is allowed from the following: music, art, drama and dancing. Special attention is paid to training in social living and for this purpose all trainees must reside in the college hostels. The duration of the training college course is two years, but teachers of special subjects are required to take additional courses before qualifying. Ceylon Technical College provides a two-year course in woodwork, motor mechanics, etc., and the Heywood School of Art a two-year course in art as well as art and crafts. At Peradeniya and Kundasale, special training is given in agriculture, animal husbandry and home science.

Teaching is one of the recognized professions in Ceylon and teachers of public and private schools enjoy a large measure of security of tenure. A uniform salary scale exists for all teachers with avenues of promotion leading to head-teachership and special posts. Appointments and promotions are made on the basis of

service and qualifications. The dismissal and discontinuance of teachers is controlled by regulations laid down by the Government. All teachers are paid a cost-of-living allowance in addition to their salary, but teachers in public schools get a rent allowance or free quarters and three sets of free railway warrants a year. All teachers are entitled to casual leave and full pay for medical sick leave for stated periods. All registered teachers are covered by Government pension schemes and compulsory retiring ages are 60 for men and 55 for women, the optional retiring ages being 55 and 50 respectively.

The school is fast becoming a central unit in the life of village communities, as it is the only place where the village folk can conveniently meet. Teachers therefore tend to be the leaders of community life and enjoy the respect of society.

The aim of primary education in Ceylon is to teach through the mother-tongue, to provide a working knowledge of English as a compulsory second language, to make education less academic, to make practical work an integral part of the child's education and to include agriculture, woodwork, and arts and crafts in the curriculum for boys and home science for girls.

The curriculum is to be taught 'in terms of activity and experience rather than knowledge to be acquired and facts to be stored'. Moreover, the method of teaching is to be centred round the natural growth and needs and environment of the child. Teaching is to be given with a view to discovering and developing pupils' aptitudes and interests and for this purpose cumulative records of progress made by pupils at all stages are kept.

Construction of curricula is the responsibility of the Director of Public Instruction, under whom there is a separate office in charge of a chief inspector. Syllabuses for primary schooling are drawn up and issued for adoption by the schools. No provision is made for teachers or parents to be consulted in the preparation of the syllabuses.

India

The educational system of India is decentralized and education is the function of the states and provinces. The advisory Board of Education, however, instituted by the central Government and containing representatives of the states and provinces, co-ordinates the educational plans which are drawn up on a national basis and issued by and with the blessing of the central Government. Article 45 of the Constitution of India provides for the introduction and full application of free compulsory education throughout the country by 1961, as a result of which a five-year operational plan (1951–

56) for educational development has been drawn up and is being implemented. Some of the provincial and state Governments have introduced Primary Education Acts as follows: Bombay Primary Education Act, 1947; City of Bombay Primary Education Act, 1920; Assam Primary Education Act, 1947; Madras Elementary Education Act, 1920; Bengal Primary Education Act, 1919; Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act, 1930; United Provinces Primary Education Act, 1919; United Provinces (District Boards) Primary Education Act, 1926; Punjab Primary Education Act, 1940; Central Provinces Primary Education Act, 1920.

This permissive legislation has been implemented in the following states and provinces: Assam, West Bengal, Bihar, Bombay, Madhya Pradesh, Madras, Orissa, Punjab, Uttar Pradesh, Delhi, Madhy Bharat, Rajasthan, Bhopal, Hyderabad, Mysore, Travancore and Tripura.

Each province or state has a minister of education and a director of public instruction with the necessary administrative and inspecting staff. The actual administration of primary education is delegated to the district boards, subject to inspection and policy directions, but the authorities are contemplating direct assumption of the functions by the provincial or state Governments. Schools which are maintained by voluntary agencies are managed through their own committees with little interference from the department of education or the district boards.

Only a few states, such as Bombay and Mysore, have introduced compulsory schooling for a large part of their entire area; others only in selected areas. The duration of compulsory schooling is not the same in all the states and provinces, but plans are being worked out by the Ministry of Education in consultation with the education departments to introduce a uniform period of compulsion. There is an acute shortage of school buildings and efforts are being made to remedy the situation by giving highest priority to construction of school buildings in areas where compulsory education has been or is to be introduced.

Education departments are financed from the respective provincial or state budget. The cost of primary education for public schools is borne by the district boards from their own resources and grants received from the state Governments. Private primary schools receive grants-in-aid, if considered desirable, from the district boards. The central Government gives block grants to the state Governments for specific non-recurring expenditure. Primary and compulsory education is free except for books and stationery, which pupils have to provide for themselves. There are no free school services. India is not in a position to meet the financial obligations of universal compulsory education, and has

therefore planned to introduce basic education, under which scheme the schools are estimated to be able to pay about 50 per cent of the total recurring expenses out of income from the sale of articles made by the pupils.

According to a survey made by the Government of India during 1948–49, about 24 per cent of children of school-age were in school and the teacher-pupil ratio was 1:33. Moreover out of 474,328 teachers, 174,437 were untrained, in spite of the fact that the total enrolment in all teacher training institutions was 60,000. Several training institutions have been opened by the different states up to date, in addition to training institutions for basic education, both for junior (6–11 years) and senior (12–14 years) stages. Plans are also being drawn up to ensure a sufficient supply of trained teachers for universal compulsory schooling and for replacing present school courses by basic education courses.

Institutions for the training of primary and secondary school teachers are controlled and financed by the state Governments through the directors of public instruction. Primary school teachers are trained in the normal schools and primary teacher training institutions. All training institutions are residential and most of the trainees receive stipends from the Government to cover the cost of their tuition and board and lodging. Students receiving stipends have to execute a bond whereby they agree to serve as a teacher for a specified period after training. Training institutions for men and women are separate. The minimum qualification for entry into primary teacher training institutions is matriculation, but this rule is relaxed in special cases. All admissions are by a selection test on a competitive basis. The medium of instruction in the training institutions is the mother-tongue or the regional language.

Subjects taught in the training institutions for primary school teachers are: child psychology; principles and practice of education; physical education and hygiene; handwork and activity method in education; methods of teaching tool subjects; and practice teaching. Teachers for basic schools, however, take the above course with special emphasis on practical work and workshop experience. Moreover they are taught to exploit the resources implicit in craft work for educative purposes and not to produce craftsmen able to practise a craft merely mechanically.

School teachers in public schools are controlled by the district board authorities, except for areas where compulsory education has been introduced, in which cases teachers are servants of the state Governments. Teachers employed by provincial Governments or district boards enjoy a certain security of tenure, leave, sicknesss benefits, pension rights, etc. which vary from state to state, but

those engaged by private schools enjoy none of these benefits. Public schools have increased the scales of pay for teachers, but these are still much lower than those obtaining for other comparable professions. Private schools pay their teachers according to their own scales of pay which are much lower than the scales for public school teachers. Recruitment and promotion of teachers in public schools are based on qualifications and experience, but private schools do not follow any uniform policy in this respect. The social status of primary school teachers corresponds to their low economic status, although they are still respected for their honesty and integrity in the rural areas.

The aim of primary education was to prepare pupils for secondary education and hence 'the present curricula of primary schools are unsuitable to meet the needs of national life and the cultural and economic problems of the masses'. 'Nor do they take into account the exigencies of a rural environment, in which about 30 per cent of the people live, nor the fundamental task of securing an all-round development of the child's personality.' Therefore in the national plan top priority has been given to the question of bringing about a radical re-orientation of the primary school curriculum. The aim of the Wardha Education Scheme, now known as basic education, has been accepted by the Government as its objective and it aims at providing instruction which will 'centre round some form of manual and productive work, and all other activities to be developed or training to be given should, as far as possible, be integrally related to the central handcraft chosen, with due regard to the environment of the child'. This type of schooling through activity is meant primarily for rural areas, but will be extended with necessary modifications to urban areas. Certain elements of cultural subjects which cannot be correlated with the basic craft will be taught independently. Pending the introduction of the basic education course throughout the country, the curriculum of primary schools is being revised to accord with national requirements. The conventional method of teaching through textbooks has been found to be unsatisfactory and teachers are now expected to make teaching as interesting as possible for the pupils and to relate it to their needs and environment. The traditional method of examinations for promotion from class to class has also caused alarming wastage due to the dropping off of attendance as a result of retardation. Attention is therefore being given to this problem. The trend at present is to provide compulsory education complete in itself to produce useful parents, workers and citizens.

One of the main features of basic education is to improve the health and the standard of living of the people, and teachers are

being specially trained to take an active part in community activities. In rural areas they are already taking a leading part in these activities. Teachers are also expected to play a useful role in the campaign for the education of illiterate adults, and for this purpose teaching in the primary schools has been closely related to the fundamental education course now being elaborated.

Indonesia

Education in Indonesia is the concern of the central Government. Article 30 of the Provisional Constitution lays down that 'every Indonesian citizen is entitled to education', that 'he will be free to make his choice of education', and that 'teachers will be free to exercise their profession, except for the supervision to be exercised by the public authority in accordance with law'. Article 41 elaborates the above by saying that 'the authorities shall promote the spiritual and physical well-being of the people' and 'in particular aim at abolishment of illiteracy as speedily as possible'. The authorities are to aim at a speedy introduction of compulsory primary education and 'shall give pupils of the private schools which comply with the standard of efficiency imposed by law on public education the same rights as are accorded to pupils of public schools'. There is, however, no law regarding compulsory schooling.

The Government of the Republic is decentralized, with corresponding effects on the administration of the activities of the Ministry of Education. The country is divided into 12 provinces; these are composed of regencies, which in turn are sub-divided into villages. The central Government delegates a part of its responsibility to provinces, regencies and villages. Each unit has a local department of education with an administrative and financial role, the head being responsible to the executive council concerned. The technical supervision of all these local activities remains in the hands of the Ministry, which has offices in all provinces and regencies, in addition to the local departments. Inspection of schools is carried out by the provincial offices of the Ministry of Education.

One of the earliest educational measures after independence was the introduction of a national primary school of six classes for children between 6 and 12 years of age, but many village schools are still incomplete and have only three classes. There is a shortage of schools and the Government has been obliged to fix the number of pupils per class at 50.

Primary education is free and all funds are drawn from the general revenues of the central Government; there are no special taxes or local rates for education. The provinces secure their revenue from the Ministry of Internal Affairs and the regencies are

financed by the Ministry of Internal Affairs through the provinces. Thus national expenditure on education involves both the Ministries of Education and of Internal Affairs. Local communities contribute voluntarily towards the cost of education in the form of grants of land and expenses of construction of school buildings.

In Indonesia, on the basis of a teacher-pupil ratio of 1 : 50, there is a shortage of about 20,816 teachers. The total number of teachers at present is about 81,000. Of these, 30,800 have taken the four-year training course, 26,900 the two-year course, while 23,300 are unqualified.

In planning for teacher training, separate types of course have been designed for teachers at each level. Primary school teachers receive a three-year course in a normal school (SGA) at the senior secondary level; teachers for the junior secondary take a one-year course after completing senior secondary school; for senior secondary school teachers two possibilities are open, either a training course of four years or graduation from a university or academy. But the development of the new institutions on the above lines cannot keep pace with the demand for teachers. A number of special measures have therefore been taken. The first is a four-year course (SGB) based on the primary school and the second an emergency course corresponding to the SGB but further accelerated. The student attends the course for two years and is then posted to a school where he continues by correspondence study to complete the remaining two years of his course. These special measures are being carried out on a very large scale. To satisfy the demand for teachers in the junior secondary schools it has been found necessary to post to them graduates of the main primary normal schools (SGA); while in service these teachers follow complementary courses in order to gain the Certificate 'A'. Such courses are given in classes attached to senior secondary schools. Facilities are also provided to enable all teachers in service to acquire higher qualifications. The Ministry in co-operation with the Teachers' Association also organizes complementary courses (by classes and correspondence) in order to provide the teachers with the lessons they need. These courses are controlled and financed by the federal Government.

The curricula of teacher training in all the training institutions are of the conventional type, and plans are expected to be drawn up to revise them after the shortage of teachers has been met. The principle is followed that the primary teacher must be able to teach all primary school subjects, the junior secondary teacher a group of related subjects, and the senior secondary teacher one specialized subject.

The teacher is considered as a government employee and is paid in accordance with a national salary scale for the whole country. This scale is based on the educational qualifications of the government employee, and on his responsibility and work. Teachers, however, are always placed one step higher in the salary scale than other government employees with the same educational qualifications. Each scale has a minimum and maximum figure, and ordinarily the teacher can reach his maximum after 25 years of service. All teachers, like other civil servants, become members of the pension scheme automatically. The age for retirement is calculated on a sliding scale, based on age and years of service, and must be at least 50 years. The social status of teachers is high and corresponds to their economic status.

In the newly adopted system of education in Indonesia, there is only one type of primary school, the general primary school which is open to all children; but there is also provision for special schools for vocational training (both boys and girls) and for teaching some kind of trade (hand crafts, mechanics, commerce, administration, domestic science). The new system is based on the five fundamental principles of the state—the *Pantja Sila*. These are: recognition of the divine omnipotence, humanity, national consciousness, belief and faith in democracy, social justice for all. Curricula in the primary schools throughout Indonesia differ greatly owing to the enormous size of the country and the differences in the composition of society. But by and large, every child who has taken the full six-year course at a primary school will have had a similar basic education. Primary schools are co-educational and in the first two classes the local language is used as the medium of instruction; thereafter Indonesian is introduced and becomes the medium, while the local language is taught as a subject. The use of Dutch as a 'vehicular' language has been allowed by way of courtesy in special schools for those whose mother-tongue is Dutch. The curriculum also comprises arithmetic, physical education, hygiene, moral education; singing and craft work; natural science, geography and history are introduced in the third or fourth year, and home science is taught to girls from the fourth year on. On completing the primary course satisfactorily pupils are awarded certificates without examinations. However, those proceeding to secondary and vocational schools have to take an admission test. The conventional method of teaching the three R's is followed, although there has been considerable improvement in the technique of guiding textbooks.

The Ministry has formulated two big plans which are being implemented: a 10-year plan to prepare for the introduction of compulsory education for children and a 10-year plan for a mass

education scheme to eradicate illiteracy. Both schemes have the full support of the nation and are progressing satisfactorily in spite of financial handicaps.

Laos

The educational system of Laos is governed by Law No. 12, voted by the National Assembly on 9 April 1951 and promulgated by Royal Ordinance No. 112 of 26 April 1951, and a subsequent amendment voted on 26 January 1952, i.e. Law No. 108. Article I states that primary education is compulsory and free for all children of both sexes from the age of six and may be given either in public schools or properly organized private schools. Article II provides that every village group having a sufficient number of pupils to justify the creation of a primary school shall, within budgetary limits, be endowed with a public primary school and that all the neighbourhood within one kilometre of a public school is subject to the compulsory school obligation. Article III enjoins that all supplies of material and labour for the construction of the school are to be provided by all persons inscribed within the circle of five kilometres. Article IV makes all villages provided with a primary school responsible for maintaining it at their own expense in good running order and also for its furnishings and the housing of the teacher. Article V prescribes punishment for infringement of the law—30 piastres after the first warning and double for each subsequent offence. The Government does not, however, expect a very strict application of the law since it is aware of the poverty of the inhabitants and also their hostility to repressive measures.

Education is under the control of the Ministry of National Education. There is a Minister of Education to lay down policy, and a Director of Education to execute it. Primary inspectors in each province receive instructions on professional matters from the Director of Education but are under the administrative control of the head of the province. Routine administration regarding schools, the award of scholarships to students, and examinations, has been delegated by the Ministry of National Education to the heads of provinces, who take action in consultation with their own primary inspectors. There are separate directorates within the Ministry for primary and secondary education. The directorate for primary education consists of two sections: one dealing with all aspects of primary education such as teaching, curriculum, examinations, inspection, medical supervision, etc. and the other with administrative matters such as staffing of primary inspectorate and primary schools, which includes recruiting, grading, payment,

appointment, confirmation, promotion, holidays, pensions, transfers, scholarships, and educational supplies, etc.

The cost of education is partly met from the general revenues raised by the central Government, and partly by the people of the locality where the schools are situated. Religious schools attached to the pagodas are entirely self-supporting but for the sake of national uniformity they are under the control of the Ministry of National Education. Education expenditure by the Central Government covers the cost of administration, salaries of Government staff, subventions and scholarships, and amounts to about 18 per cent of the total national budget for 1953. The Government plans in the near future to revise its financial methods regarding education side by side with its measures for democratic decentralization by providing for the expenditure to be borne partly out of local resources.

The aim of primary education is to make people literate, to instil moral values into them and to fit them for rural life. The curriculum, therefore, consists of the Laotian language, arithmetic, history, geography, Buddhist doctrines and precepts, and pride in national culture. French is taught as a second language in the public schools, and Pali is the compulsory language in the pagoda schools.

Primary education comprises two stages of three years each, elementary and complementary. Extra provision has been made since the declaration of independence by the growing number of village schools adapted to local conditions and needs, and by central schools which provide the full primary education; yet there are enough schools at present to provide for only 40,000 students, which represents about 15 per cent of school-age children. This is because insecurity reigns in the country and many schools in the northern and southern provinces have been closed down.

The normal teacher training course is of four years duration and is open to candidates who hold the complementary primary school certificate and have qualified in a competitive entry test for the teacher training school. Teacher training schools are residential and trainees are paid 400 piastres per month to cover the cost of board and lodging. Emergency courses have been introduced to make up for the acute shortage of teachers. There is a course lasting only two months after elementary certificate, held during vacations and meant for student teachers or auxiliary teachers. There is another course of two years for candidates chosen on a competitive basis from amongst student teachers of three years standing.

Teachers in public schools are civil servants and enjoy security of tenure, pension, leave and other benefits, but teachers

in religious schools do not enjoy any of these privileges. The teachers earn enough for simple living and are respected by the community.

New Zealand

State education in New Zealand has its legal basis in the Education Act of 1914, which created the Education Department of the central Government and charged it with the administration of the Act and subsequent amendments and regulations. The Education Department distributes the funds voted annually for education by Parliament and controls the inspectorate and all matters pertaining to curricula. Actual administration of schools is vested by the Act in district education boards elected by the members of the school committees, which also disburse grants received from the Education Department. Maori schools, however, are controlled and administered by a special branch of the Department of Education. The nine district education boards are authorized to make bye-laws and regulations, e.g. Education (School Age) Regulation 1943.

The Act provides for free, compulsory and secular education which has been fully implemented. Attendance is compulsory from the seventh birthday to the fifteenth. Education is also free for those who claim it after the age of compulsion until the end of the year in which they turn 19.

All expenditure on public primary and post-primary education is met from funds provided by the central Government. The amounts of the grants to district education boards for the salaries of teachers, maintenance of buildings, administration expenses etc. are determined by regulations. The district education boards give grants to the elected school committees on a capitation basis for cleaning and heating of schools and purchase of school requisites. Private schools receive no grants from state funds but are provided with free primary school textbooks, school health services and transport and boarding allowances.

The main problems in education at present are those arising from 'the dramatic increase in the school population during the post-war years'. The output of teachers from the training institutions is inadequate to meet the situation. Moreover more than half of the teachers are women, many of whom give up teaching for marriage after a few years service. Hence, in spite of the fact that up to 25 per cent of young people completing high school have taken up the teaching profession in recent years, it has been necessary to provide a one-year emergency training scheme for people recruited from other walks of life. Although all primary school

teachers are normally trained through a three-year course, professional training is not yet obligatory for post-primary teachers. An expanded training of post-primary teachers is therefore a real necessity. The problem is not so much one of recruitment as of providing training facilities.

The training of teachers is the responsibility of the Department of Education. There are five training colleges, one of which is residential. The quota of entrants for each training college is determined each year by the Education Department from statistical surveys of the needs of the schools based on the existing teacher-pupil ratio, i.e. 1:33, not counting specialized teachers and probationary assistants. The relationship with the university colleges is maintained through a board of studies, of which a professor of education of the local university is a member and which aims at co-ordinating the training college and university studies. Specific provision is made for the cost of maintenance of the teacher training colleges in the annual budget of the Education Department. While at training college a student receives £200 per annum and £46 extra if living away from home. Trainees over 21 years of age are paid at the rate of £375 for men and £300 for women. Training of primary school teachers is at post-secondary level and some students take university courses at the same time. Primary training consists of two years at the training college, followed by a year as a probationary assistant. There are four university colleges which have departments of education. Education, as a university subject, can be taken for a diploma or as part of a bachelor's degree in arts, or for the degree of master of arts and honours. The subjects taught at the training colleges are: English language and literature, history, geography, general science or biology, arts and crafts, music, physical culture and health, educational theory and the principles and practice of teaching. About one-third to two-fifths of the student's time in the training college is spent in 'normal' or 'associate' schools, usually in periods of three to six weeks. A shortened course of one year covering the subjects mentioned above has also been provided for the emergency training scheme. For in-service training of teachers, courses are given at Wallis House, Wellington, to various groups of teachers including headmasters.

School teachers are public servants and enjoy almost complete security of tenure, being fully safeguarded by law against unjust dismissal. There are also generous provisions for continued payment of salary during periods of sickness and retirement on superannuation (two-thirds of average salary during the last five years of service). The teaching profession is not nearly so well remunerated as other comparable professions but the present scales of pay

are in advance of past scales and enable the teachers to live in reasonable comfort. The new salary scale also links the salary to the person rather than to the post, thus allowing initiative for brilliant people to acquire better qualifications. There are different scales of pay for men and women. Teachers are expected to participate in community life and, in practice, teachers in remote localities make an effective contribution in this respect. All teachers have contact with community life through parent-teacher associations. While not having as favourable a social status as members of higher paid professions, teachers enjoy the respect of the community.

There are two broad trends regarding the aims of education: first a growing recognition of the active and creative powers of children, of the importance of physical, social, emotional and aesthetic as well as of intellectual development, and of the fact of individual differences amongst children; and second, that the central purpose of the school as a social agency is to help to create 'a basic common culture'; in other words its task is not merely to equip children with the tools of learning but to give them the advantages of growing up in a civilized and culturally rich environment. In the school curriculum there is emphasis on physical education, sport, arts and crafts, music and drama and practical work of all kinds. Promotion from class to class is on the basis of age rather than of scholastic attainment and there are no examination barriers in primary schools. The system of schooling has become more liberal and the syllabus and textbooks for the schools have been suitably revised. The Education Act requires that the programme of primary education includes English, arithmetic, geography, history, drawing, handwork, including needlework for girls, nature study and elementary science, vocal music, physical instruction, health education, civic and moral instruction.

'Whilst the teaching is primarily on what may be called the tool subjects—reading, English composition and grammar, writing and arithmetic—other subjects of the curriculum receive full emphasis.' Standard class teachers teach all subjects in such a way as to arouse and maintain the interest of the pupil. 'The fuller recognition of individual differences is reflected in such devices as individual methods of teaching, grouping within a class and streaming of classes.' The teachers also play an important part in giving vocational advice to their pupils not only at the secondary but also at the primary level. For the advice and guidance of teachers new textbooks have been issued and itinerant advisers have been appointed.

School education is related to community needs, in so far as European children are concerned, although some of these children

are handicapped by their home background not being completely in accord with their school teaching and activities. A certain amount of what corresponds to fundamental education is given to Maori children at Maori schools. Maori children educated in public schools conducted by the education boards, as opposed to Maori schools conducted by a special section of the Education Department, are hindered by language disability, lack of motive and conflict between the cultural values of home and school.

The syllabus is issued by the Department of Education for each subject. A small committee of inspectors and teachers' representatives is specially set up to draw up or revise a particular syllabus and its proposals are published and distributed to the whole body of teachers for criticism. A new committee is then set up which examines the original report along with the comments received on it. The final syllabus is then drawn up after study and discussion, and is officially issued by the Education Department for adoption by the schools.

The Department of Education is also running a correspondence service as a complement to the school system for children who are unable to attend ordinary classes owing to the distance from school or personal disabilities, etc. This service is rendered from the Correspondence School under a headmaster assisted by the necessary complement of teaching and administrative staff. The assignment service of the school is on a fortnightly basis — each set containing lessons properly illustrated and supplemented with all the necessary study material and requiring pupils to return the written work for correction and comment at regular intervals. The curriculum is the same as for ordinary schools. The correspondence school is a useful supplement to the ordinary school system in countries which, like New Zealand, have to serve a scattered and predominantly rural population.

Pakistan

In Pakistan education is a provincial matter and is administered by the education departments of the provinces. The Ministry of Education of the central Government, however, co-ordinates educational policies of the provinces and prepares education development plans at a national level. Most of the provincial Governments have introduced Primary Education Acts, with a view to making primary education compulsory in gradual stages and effect has been given to this permissive legislation in several districts of the provinces. A six-year plan of educational development (1951–57) has also been drawn up, and it is expected that Khairpur will have free and compulsory education at the end of five years, East

Bengal and the Federal Area of Karachi at the end of 10 years, and the Punjab, N.W.F.P., Baluchistan and Bhawalpur at the end of 20 years. Primary and compulsory education in Pakistan is governed by the following Acts: Bengal Primary Education Act of 1919, as amended in 1932; Bengal (Rural) Primary Education Act of 1930, as amended by the East Bengal Act XX of 1951 and East Bengal Ordinance XVII of 1951; The Punjab Primary Education Act of 1940; The Sind Primary Education Act of 1947 (also adopted for Karachi); The North-West Frontier Province Primary Education Act of 1939; Bhawalpur Primary Education Act of 1948.

Each province has a minister of education and a director of public instruction with the necessary administrative and inspecting staff. The actual administration of primary education, however, is delegated to the district boards, subject to policy directions, except for areas in East Bengal where compulsory education has been introduced; these are administered directly by the provincial Government.

Primary education is financed by provincial Governments, district boards and private organizations, the cost for public schools being borne by the district boards from their own sources and grants received from the provincial Governments. Private primary schools are entirely financed by private organizations, except a few who receive grants-in-aid from the district boards. The central Government also gives lump grants to provincial Governments for specific non-recurring expenditure on compulsory education. Primary education in both compulsory and non-compulsory areas is free, but pupils have to provide their own books and stationery and are not given any free school services.

Compulsory schooling has been introduced in selected areas of the provinces, and material progress in this respect has been made in the provinces of East Bengal, the Punjab and Sind. Under the six-year national plan of educational development 24,027 new primary schools are expected to be started by 1957, after which further specific plans will be drawn up to complete the full application of compulsory schooling throughout the country by a definite date. There is an acute shortage of schools, and to solve the problem many schools are now being run on double shifts. Some schools are also being held in the open air, there being only enough accommodation in the school building for teaching materials and equipment.

Out of 88,697 teachers employed in existing primary schools 43,471 are untrained; hence, besides replacing untrained teachers by trained ones, provision has to be made for the training of additional teachers to staff new schools. The total number of existing training institutions for primary school teachers is 125 with an

enrolment of 6,145. The plan makes provision for the establishment of 101 new training institutions with a total capacity of 11,220. But it can be seen that the provision is quite inadequate. On the basis of 1 teacher for every 30 pupils the number of teachers required for the new primary schools will be approximately 125,000 and the training institutions provided for will produce only about 70,000 teachers.

Primary school teachers are trained in normal schools or primary training institutes. The primary teachers' certificate is awarded by the Director of Public Instruction after a test conducted by him. All the training institutions for primary school teachers are controlled and financed by the provincial Governments. The central Government has also sanctioned grants to the provincial Governments for meeting the non-recurring cost of establishing teacher training institutions to provide teachers for compulsory schooling. All training institutions are residential and most of the students receive Government stipends which fully cover the charges levied for tuition and board and lodging by the training institutions. Students receiving stipends have to execute a bond whereby they agree to serve as a teacher for a specified period after training. Training institutions for men and women are separate. The minimum qualification for entry into the primary training institutes is matriculation and the period of training is one year. Normal schools admit candidates to a one-year senior course from among those who have read up to at least class X of the secondary school, and for the junior course, lasting two years, those who have at least completed class VIII. All admissions to training institutions are by selection test, both written and oral, on a competitive basis. Students from backward communities, however, have not yet reached the competition standard and special seats have been reserved for them, subject to their achieving the minimum standard in the selection test. The medium of instruction in the training institutions is the mother-tongue or the regional language.

Subjects taught in the training institutions for primary school teachers are: child development and its relation to education, including child observation in the form of an investigation of the home and social background of the child; aims and ideals of education in different social orders, including principles of education; significance of Islamic ideology with special reference to universal brotherhood, equality, tolerance, and social justice; role of hygiene and physiology in relation to physical education; the place of handwork and activity method in education; methods of better living in relation to individual and community life; methods of teaching the mother-tongue and other basic subjects by emphasis on practical work; and training in practical teaching by observa-

tion of model lessons, by participating in discussion lessons and by actual teaching in schools.

Teachers working in schools controlled by provincial Governments or district boards enjoy a certain security of tenure, leave, sickness benefits, pension rights, etc. which vary from province to province. Teachers employed in private primary schools enjoy neither security of tenure nor the various benefits. Scales of pay for teachers employed by the provincial Governments or district boards have been recently increased, but are still much lower than those obtaining for other comparable professions. Teachers employed in private schools are paid on an average much less than teachers employed in public schools. Recruitment and promotion of teachers in public schools are based on qualifications and experience, but for private schools no uniform policy or principle is followed. As a result of the low economic status of primary school teachers, their social status is correspondingly unfavourable, although they still enjoy a certain amount of respect from the people, particularly in rural areas, because of their honesty and integrity and the high place given to education and the teaching profession by Islam.

The aim of primary education in Pakistan is to develop character, to inculcate the basic principles of Islamic ideology and to provide permanent functional literacy with emphasis on civic rights and duties with a view to producing useful citizens in a free society. The curriculum of primary education includes: mother-tongue (reading and writing); arithmetic; social studies (history, geography, civics); elementary science (including health care); arts and crafts; physical training, games and music; religious instruction. The medium of instruction is the mother-tongue or the regional language. Those whose mother-tongue is not Urdu are taught that language as a compulsory subject during the last two years of the five-year primary course. Arrangements are also made for religious instruction in their own religion for non-Muslim children.

The conventional method of teaching the three R's through textbooks is general. This has led to considerable cramming on the part of pupils and serious attempts are being made to place trained teachers in the schools to remedy the situation. Action has also been taken to make teaching more interesting and in keeping with the needs and environments of the pupils. The traditional method of examinations for promotion from one class to another is the general rule, and this leads to considerable wastage as a result of pupils leaving school in order not to face the boredom and disgrace of retardation.

Teachers are encouraged to take an active part in community

activities, and in rural areas they frequently assume leadership. The schools are also used as adult education centres in the evenings and various media of education, such as films, charts, etc., are used to accelerate the process of adult learning. Efforts are also being made to relate the courses for adults to their immediate needs and vocations.

Philippines

Under Article XIV, Section 5 of the Constitution of the Philippines, 'All educational institutions shall be under the supervision of and subject to regulation by the state. The Government shall establish and maintain a complete and adequate system of public education, and shall provide at least free public primary instruction and citizenship training to all adult citizens.'

The educational system in the Philippines is highly centralized, although during the last three years there has been a significant tendency towards giving teachers and local school officials increasing freedom and participation in the formulation of school policies, in developing better curricula and in experimenting with newer methods of teaching and administration. The system is headed by the Secretary of Education, a member of the President's Cabinet; under him are the directors of public and private schools, who are responsible for the supervision and control of all schools.

In spite of the provision in the Constitution that the Government shall provide at least free public primary (grades I to IV) instruction, one-third of the 20 million inhabitants of the 52 provinces and 15 or more chartered cities of the Philippines are still illiterate. The problem is not one of finding teachers, nor of compelling the parents to send their children to school; it is one of having sufficient funds to provide adequate schooling facilities. The present schools have a total enrolment of nearly 5 million and parents are constantly exerting pressure on the Government to provide extra school accommodation for their children.

The cost of education in the Philippines is met from the central budget and during 1950–51, according to the President's budget message, it was '38 per cent of the total expenditure'. The parents of school children, however, contribute every year the equivalent of 10 per cent of total school expenditure in the form of cash, material or labour.

In the Philippines the supply and demand situation regarding teachers in May 1951 was that 'of the 12,383 who qualified in the Bureau of Public Schools examination, 5,947 or 48.02 per cent could not be employed because of the lack of vacancies in public elementary schools'. The situation in 1952–53 is estimated as follows:

'Approximately 27,165 public and normal school students will probably graduate in 1952 and 20,652 in April 1953. These figures, added to the number of candidates who failed in the public schools teacher-selection test, will yield a total of 40,324 candidates for the examination in May 1952 and a total of 31,125 candidates for the examination in 1953. Of the total number of examinees in May 1952, 16,957 will probably pass and be available for requirements as elementary classroom teachers; and of those who will take the test in May 1953, 13,330 will probably pass and be eligible for appointment.' The above figures have been based on the fact that there are 518 training colleges of different types with a total enrolment of 89,453. There is, therefore, an over-supply of teacher training graduates in the Philippines.

Teacher training institutions for primary education are supported by the National Government. A certain percentage of taxes accruing to the National Government are earmarked for public primary education. Schools for teacher training are run by the school superintendents for the Director of Public Schools. Some normal schools for the training of secondary school teachers are also maintained by the National Government, but ordinarily public secondary education in the Philippines is more or less maintained and operated on a self-supporting basis, that is on tuition fees collected from students.

The curriculum for intending elementary school teachers is two years in length after the secondary course, although with effect from 1954–55 the minimum professional requirements for appointment to an elementary teaching position shall be graduation from the four-year teachers' college. The new four-year teacher training curriculum emphasizes general education and will include the normal requirements of 20 or more units in education courses, practice teaching and also an increased amount of liberal arts courses. Prospective teachers of elementary shop-craft programmes complete a two- or three-year course in the national school of arts and trades, and those who are to teach home economics in addition to academic subjects take the three-year combined general and home economics curriculum at the Philippine Normal School, Manila.

Public school teachers are appointed by the Secretary of Education upon the recommendation of the Director of Public Schools. Those who do not possess the civil service eligibility required for teaching at their instructional level and whose efficiency ratings have been lower than 'above average' may not be promoted in rank or salary. For promotions subject to qualifications regulations the seniority rule is observed. Teachers may be dismissed only for causes as provided by law and only after due investigation

and after a decision for their dismissal has been rendered by the Commissioner for Civil Service. The Osmena Retirement Act provides for payment of a gratuity corresponding to one year's salary payable in 12 months at the highest rate of salary the retiring employee received while he was in service. To qualify for this the applicant for retirement must have rendered at least six years of continuous and satisfactory service under a regular and permanent status and present proof of physical disability which rendered it impossible for him to continue in service. Teachers are classified as regular or 'permanent', temporary, emergency or substitute. Emergency teachers are those who do not meet the minimum educational qualifications, and temporary teachers are those who have educational qualifications but lack the necessary teacher-training qualifications. Substitute teachers are those who fill leave vacancies for a temporary period.

Teaching is the most respected profession in the Philippines today, in spite of the fact that the salary scales are barely sufficient for reasonable living and are lower than for other comparable professions. No other group of public servants enjoys the same degree of public confidence, and school teachers are invariably appointed inspectors and poll clerks during elections. Teachers also play an effective part in community activities and find opportunities for leadership.

The purpose and content of the school curriculum at all levels are defined by the Constitution of the Philippines. The revised service manual for the Bureau of Public Schools defines the functions of the elementary school. 'The fundamental function of the elementary school is to enable every Filipino child to acquire basic knowledge, habits, skills, attitudes, appreciation and ideals necessary for intelligent and efficient citizenship in a democracy, particularly for home and community It serves to unify the people of the various regions of the Philippines and to develop in them the consciousness of being of one mentality under the Republic.' In terms of subject-matter the compulsory school curriculum includes the following subjects: reading and phonetics, language and spelling, arithmetic, music and writing, social studies, national language, and free periods (for pre-military training, physical education, health education, etc.).

The methods of teaching are calculated to make education attractive and highly functional. Corporal punishment is prohibited. Projects and activities in the school grounds and outside are encouraged as a means of providing a carry-over from learning to living. Recently there has also been a general acceptance of the concept of the community school. In many provinces teachers provide leadership in the improvement of home and community

life. Pupils are given the opportunity of learning by reading and observation, and group discussions are frequent. It is now realized by leading educators that a swing too far to activities and projects should be prevented, so that the three R's may not be neglected or relegated completely to the background. They seek a proper balance between subject-matter and life activities.

Officially curriculum development is still in the hands of the Education Department, but in practice it is gradually becoming the concern of everybody. The revised service manual for the Bureau of Public Schools makes the following provision: 'While the field is thus supplied with courses of studies, teachers' manuals and other curricula aids and sources of information that would be helpful to supervisors, principals and teachers in planning and organizing instruction, the task of developing the curriculum . . . will be mainly the teacher's responsibility. He will have to use all his training and experience, his initiative and resourcefulness, and all available materials and resources in order to provide children with abundant, interesting and profitable learning activities.... Lay persons who can make a contribution to the task of curriculum development or evaluation should be encouraged and asked to do so.'

Thailand

Under Articles 56 and 64 of the Constitution of Thailand of 1932, primary education is free and compulsory for children of both sexes. Under the provision of the Primary Education Act first promulgated in 1921 and revised in 1935, primary education was made compulsory for children within the age group of 7 plus to 15, and instruction was imparted free in all Government and municipal schools. Primary education means the first four classes (primary I–IV). A child passing the state examination for the primary school leaving certificate, at whatever age, is exempted from further attendance at school; otherwise the obligation to attend school ends on attainment of the age of 15. Children who live more than 2,000 metres away from schools or who are crippled or deficient may be exempted from attendance. A new system of national education is being introduced under the Royal Decree of 5 June 1951. This abolished the old Division of Primary Schools and instituted a new department to administer especially the primary schools. Previously primary and secondary education had been of the academic type leading to university courses. General education is now taken to cover all primary and part of secondary schooling; it is not academic or designed for an elite, but useful and practical so as to suit the interests and occupational needs of the entire population. The old academic type of secondary education along with

teacher training institutions remained under the Education Department, now renamed the Secondary Education Department.

Education is administered in Thailand by the Minister of Education through his permanent executive head, the Under-Secretary of State for Education. Apart from the headquarters staff, the Ministry has a provincial education officer in each of the 71 provinces, and district education officers in each of the approximately 500 districts. School attendance is checked by local authorities through their school attendance officers, who also take a yearly census of children of school age. Local authorities send periodic reports on school attendance to the Ministry of Education.

The duration of compulsory schooling is only four years except for those who fail to obtain the elementary school leaving certificate in the minimum time. About 96.5 per cent of the children subject to compulsory attendance are in schools. The Government is contemplating the extension of compulsory schooling to seven years, which, it is estimated, will require the annual provision of 5,000 new classes of 40 children each.

The Ministry of Education budget is annually allotted by the Cabinet with the approval of Parliament, and all expenses of public elementary schools are met from this budget. Private schools receive grants and subsidies from the state. The extra cost involved in extending compulsory schooling from four to seven years has been estimated at 429,381,370 ticals.

There is a shortage of trained teachers in Thailand, the need being roughly 5,000 new teachers every year, without taking into account replacement of untrained teachers. The total output of trained primary teachers in 1951 was 1,804 and in 1950 some 80 per cent of all teachers were untrained. The 26 rural training colleges for primary teachers provide a number of courses at different levels: three-year course for the local teachers' certificate, two-year course for provincial teachers' certificate, and one-year course for national teachers' certificate. These are based respectively on primary education, lower secondary and full secondary education. There are also special training colleges in Bangkok for secondary teachers providing a three-year course for junior secondary teacher's certificate and a two-year course for senior secondary teachers' certificate. It is estimated that Thailand would require one training college for primary teachers in each province (i.e. 71 instead of the existing 26) if the present demand for teachers were to be fully met; and the proposed extension of compulsory schooling to seven years would create an additional demand for about 5,000 teachers.

All training colleges are residential and free, and are maintained by the Government from the Education Budget. Central control is exercised by the Director-General of the Department of

Secondary Education, who is responsible to the Under-Secretary of State for Education for policy and co-ordination. All teachers are required to join the Teachers' Institute, a semi-official organization set up in 1944 by Act of Parliament to advise the Ministry of Education on all matters pertaining to teachers.

The curriculum of teacher training consists of both professional and general subjects, according to the nature of the schools for which the teachers are trained. The course also includes teaching observation and practice. At present the curriculum is being revised to provide for a higher standard of admission. The courses for provincial and local teachers' certificates are temporary measures to cope with the shortage of teachers. Other methods are also used to help teachers to improve their qualifications: in-service training, refresher courses during holidays and in the evenings, and correspondence courses for those in remote places. Considerable Government assistance is afforded by scholarships for students at universities and a number of teachers of special subjects are sent abroad for further training.

Teachers are civil servants and enjoy security of tenure. Salary scales are revised frequently to meet the continual increase in the cost of living. General working conditions are also being improved. Teachers are engaged according to their training and qualifications and within each grading there are a number of steps corresponding to annual increments in salary. They subscribe to a provident fund and are given pension benefits after 30 years service. Through the Teachers' Institute teachers obtain free education and scholarships for their children and free medical treatment and half fares on railways for themselves. There is no distinction in privileges or salary on grounds of sex, religious belief or race. There is one national salary scale for civil servants, divided into four grades. Fresh entrants are placed in the fourth grade, except those who hold degrees or secondary teachers' certificates, who are placed in the third grade. Headmasters are placed in the second or first grade, though in smaller schools they are still classed in the third grade. A special or unclassified grade is reserved for those in higher education on a par with directors-general of Government departments. Teachers are held in esteem by the public and enjoy good social status. They are expected to take part in community activities and often assume leadership.

The aim of compulsory schooling is to provide training in 'good citizenship, democracy, intelligence, physical fitness and health habits, professions, morals, sporting spirit, art, culture and national tradition'. The curriculum of elementary schooling as modified in 1950 is: morality and religious instruction, according to the conscience of the students, civics (emphasizing duties towards

school), history and geography of Thailand, nature study, hygiene, drawing, singing, with physical education, manual training and scouting for boys, and home economics, women's crafts, and junior Red Cross knowledge for girls.

The traditional method of teaching children to read and write in the elementary schools is considered 'dry and inefficient'. New methods were tried in 1946 and experiments were carried out in training colleges, now being pursued further by the new Department of Educational Research, created in 1952. Of the 2,540,658 children at school in 1950, 1,524,253 were in the first grade, whereas only 256,901 attained the fourth grade. Examination results at the end of the year show that many in each grade either fail or are not capable of taking examinations, or they reach the age of 15, when compulsory schooling ends, before they sit for examinations.

The compulsory primary education course has great resemblance to the fundamental education course enforced by law in 1943 (the law was repealed in the following year). Provision, however, exists for the education of those adults who may desire to avail themselves of the fundamental education course. There is, therefore, a link between the primary schools and the community which is being gradually strengthened by teachers who take an active part in community activities.

Viet-Nam

The legislative measures covering national education in Viet-Nam are Decree No. 33-GD of 19 September 1949, defining the powers of the Ministry of National Education, Decree No. 96-GD of 29 December 1949, laying down the organization of national education, and the decree of 20 January 1952, making primary instruction compulsory for children of both sexes between the ages of 6 and 14 years and limiting the obligatory period of compulsory attendance to three years for the above-mentioned age-group. It has not been possible, however, owing to the civil war to plan for the implementation of the compulsory education laws.

The central Government for Viet-Nam exercises direct control over educational policy and has the Ministry of National Education for this purpose. The Minister has the services of an administrative directorate and an educational directorate, and under the latter there is a Department of Primary and Popular Education. The administrative control of primary, secondary and popular education is in the hands of the Director of Education of each of the three administrative regions (northern, central and southern) under the governor, although on technical and professional matters directions are given to the directors by the Ministry of National

Education. The regional governors have also delegated certain functions to provincial, municipal and communal authorities with the result that public schools are directly managed by them. At the head of primary education in each province is an inspector who acts as the representative of the regional director of education. There are also regional inspectors — two for northern Viet-Nam, and one each for central and southern Viet-Nam.

The Educational Directorate of the Ministry of National Education also has a number of national inspectors for the general supervision of education in the country.

Public education in Viet-Nam is maintained by the regional governors, supported by provincial, municipal and communal authorities. The central Government makes little direct provision for education, due largely to the present unsettled state of the country, but may provide grants-in-aid from the national budget. At the present moment in northern and central Viet-Nam American economic aid covers the greater part of the costs of popular education (accelerated adult elementary classes). Private schools are entirely supported from fees.

It has been estimated, from a survey conducted by Unesco experts, that in 1952 about 420,000 children were in school, while 978,000 were out of school, and that, in order to provide even a three-year period of compulsory schooling for all, provision will have to be made for over 5,000 new schools and a corresponding number of new teachers. This is far beyond the present means of the Government.

General education of the primary grade is provided in primary schools proper or in out-of-schools institutions. In addition to public primary schools, there are many private primary schools, the number of which has increased enormously since the institution of primary education. There are also French primary schools, both public and private, on the same model as obtains in France. Primary education covers five years of school attendance terminating with the examination for the Viet-Namese primary school certificate. Schools in the villages, however, provide only the first three years of the primary stage. The Viet-Namese language is the medium of instruction.

During 1952 there were about 7,000 teachers for 420,000 pupils, that is a ratio of 60 pupils per teacher. The regular teacher training institutions produced only 250 graduates in 1952. Primary teachers are being trained in teacher training schools and in accelerated teacher training classes. The regular training schools have a course lasting four years and the curriculum is of the conventional type. The duration of the accelerated normal course for teacher training is nine months and the curriculum includes applied

psychology, theory and practice of teaching, practical teaching for one or two weeks in school, games and physical education, health and first-aid, and agriculture. Very little time is devoted to general education and consequently teaching in subjects such as languages, history, geography, drawing, manual work and music is rather superficial. In-service refresher courses are organized during vacations at regional level.

The role of primary schooling is to educate children to be worthy of an independent nation. Curricula are developed on new principles so that modern education may match the progress of the people and the independent nature of the state. These principles are: nationalism, compulsory primary education, use of the Viet-Namese language as the medium, admission of pupils at five years, making physical education compulsory, emphasis on song and dance, use of team work in the school as a means of creating a united spirit among the people, close relationship between the school and home, and apprentice schools placed beside primary schools in the effort to foster small industries. The curricula drawn up at the Ministry of Education contain programmes which are suggestions only, and the classroom teacher is free to choose the sequence and to suit his teaching to the locality.

The policy of the Government is to develop compulsory primary schooling and fundamental education simulaneously. There are two types of popular education courses, one the literary course, lasting nine months for youths between the ages of 6 and 18, and the second, lasting four months, for adults over 18. Both courses are remedial in nature, designed to give a primary school education to those who have missed the opportunity. The schools are also expected to be community centres.

NON-SELF-GOVERNING TERRITORIES

The South Asia and Pacific region contains a considerable number of territories administered by Australia, France, the Netherlands, New Zealand, the United Kingdom and the United States of America. Any attempt to list them comprehensively brings up the question of the limits of the 'region', since for the most part the territories are islands in the Indian and Pacific Oceans, stretching far out to the east. The Federation of Malaya and the Colony of Singapore must undoubtedly be included in this survey, on the double ground of situation and size of the school system. For the rest a sampling technique is used: Mauritius and Fiji are territories under United Kingdom administration; New Caledonia under French; New Guinea under Dutch and Australian, and Western

Samoa under New Zealand administration. This list omits the territories of North Borneo and those in the farther Pacific.

Fiji

The legal basis of the colony's present educational system is laid down in the Education Ordinance of 1929. Education is not yet compulsory for all children, except on the remote island of Rotuma. Fijian regulations require that every Fijian child between the ages of 6 and 15 shall attend school, if one is available within three miles.

A Board of Education, consisting of appointees of the Legislative Council under the chairmanship of the Director of Education, advises the Government on educational policy. The Director of Education is assisted by a deputy director, a chief inspector of schools and a staff of supervisors and education officers. Non-governmental authorities direct 93 per cent of the schools, which are, however, subject to the control of the Department of Education in all matters affecting the standards of instruction, curriculum and conditions of teaching. The provision of school buildings is, in general, the responsibility of voluntary agencies or the local authorities, but financial assistance is in some cases provided by the central Government. Educational supplies are provided by the Government.

In 1951 expenditure on education from colonial revenue and special development funds was 75 per cent of the total education expenditure, the remainder coming from voluntary agencies. The expenditure from colonial revenue represented 9.84 per cent of the total budget of the colony. The Government pays the full salaries of Government teachers and approximately 75 per cent of teachers' salaries in all schools approved by the Department of Education, the remainder being paid by the local authorities or by the voluntary agencies concerned. Fees are charged in some private schools but this practice is dying out.

The primary school in Fiji provides eight years' schooling, although the last three years should be regarded as of post-primary standard. There are separate schools for European, Fijian and Indian children and schools which may consist of mixed national groups. A major problem in Fiji is the language of instruction. At present, instruction in the first years of the primary schools is given in the vernacular of the village concerned, i.e. one of the Fijian or Indian languages in use. English is introduced after two, three or four years of primary schooling, both as a second language and as a language of instruction. The curriculum has recently been revised to suit the requirements of the islands and efforts are

being made to adapt the courses in the later years to the likely vocational or social needs of students. It is hoped in this way to offset the pupils present tendency to leave school after three or four years primary instruction.

A single teacher training institution, now under Government control and formed by the amalgamation of smaller training centres run by voluntary agencies, provides a two-year course at post-secondary level. It also trains teachers for neighbouring Pacific islands. Qualifications and training of teachers, in general, are satisfactory, but there is still a group of untrained teachers. All teachers, except those who wish to remain independent under certain missions' control, have been taken into the public service with guaranteed fixed salary scales and pension benefits. The bulk of the teaching staff is of native origin, but there are a few European teachers and administrators in responsible positions.

The 10-year plan of development for the education system in the Colony of Fiji provides mainly for the building of school and staff quarters and for the extension of schools. Once this quantitative phase of development has been completed, special attention will be paid to the qualitative aspect of primary education.

Malaya

In the Federation of Malaya each of the state and settlement Governments controls its primary, secondary and trade schools by endowments and ordinances. The federal legislature, however, has power to make laws with respect to primary, secondary and trade school education to the extent of ensuring a common policy and a common system of administration; higher education; technical education and training of teachers; registration of schools; federal educational institutions; the Malay textbooks bureau.

The federal legislature has passed ordinances on these subjects and has drawn up a development plan dealing with social services, including education for the years 1950–55. The Education Ordinance of 1952 defines the aim and purpose of the national education policy of the federation, which is 'to achieve a sound education for all children in the federation, using in the main, for this purpose, the official languages of the federation and bringing together pupils of all races in a national type of school with a Malayan orientation'.

It provides for compulsory full-time schooling for the age-group 6–12 years, and the requisite schooling facilities. Only registered schools are allowed to operate and only certificated teachers may be employed as teachers. Provision has also been made for

welfare services such as medical inspection, treatment for all, transport and maintenance grants for needy children.

The central Government has a member for education, who is charged with the duty of promoting the education of the people of Malaya and the development of the necessary institutions in accordance with the national educational policy, assisted by a central advisory council under the chairmanship of the Federal Director of Education. Similarly each state and settlement Government has a superintendent of education, or senior inspector of schools, who directs his department and is responsible to his own administration. The Federal Director of Education controls the federal institutions, advises the federal Government on matters of common policy and deals with technical problems that arise at this level. Officers of the headquarters department visit schools throughout the federation, organize specialist and refresher courses for groups of teachers and conduct teacher training and other examinations.

There are both Government schools and private schools maintained by voluntary agencies, and they are of different types according as they are conducted in the English, Malay, Chinese or Indian language medium. The 'national schools' following the 1952 Ordinance will slowly reduce the variety of type. Non-government schools receive grants-in-aid from the governments subject to certain conditions. A uniform procedure is followed for registration of schools and of teachers throughout the federation: school premises have to be passed as satisfactory by a public health officer and teachers are eligible for registration when they are suitably qualified.

Expenditure on education is incurred by the nine states and two settlements, as well as by the federal Government. Funds for this expenditure are made available from general revenue. The Education Development Fund Ordinance, 1952, enables money to be put at the disposal of a board to meet the cost of the training of teachers, the provision of buildings and new equipment for educational purposes and generally for the advancement of education in the federation. A certain sum is available from colonial development and welfare funds for capital outlay. In addition voluntary agencies and local bodies raise funds from community resources by charging fees, raising the education rate and receiving donations. The Government also helps voluntary bodies to construct new buildings by the grant-in-aid system.

The English schools enrol pupils from all sectors of the Malayan community; the usual type is the comprehensive school with primary and secondary departments, but separate primary schools are found, at times, with secondary 'tops' or an established link to a secondary school. The primary school comprises seven classes;

the English medium is used with a special emphasis on direct method language teaching in the earliest classes because most pupils enter the schools without any English. The curriculum resembles that prevailing in schools in the United Kingdom, duly adapted to the Malayan environment, and there is a marked tendency to use freer and less formal methods of teaching.

The Malay school course lasts six years, though not all schools have the full range. The medium of instruction is Malay with English introduced as a subject from the third standard. As the majority of schools are rural, the curriculum has a bias towards practical subjects such as handwork, and feminine crafts. A certain articulation is maintained with English schools which run a two-year intensive course for selected pupils from Malay schools. These courses provide the means for pupils to go through a full secondary education, but there are other alternatives for primary school leavers, e.g. the junior technical or trade school and teacher training classes. Annual and final examinations are set by the local department of education.

The Chinese primary schools provide a six-year course in two stages of four years and two years. The medium of instruction is Mandarin, but English is introduced as a subject in the third year. Annual examinations are set by the schools, but in the interests of uniformity the final sixth year papers are set by the Department of Education.

Indian primary schools have a course of six years in most cases and seven years in a few cases. Wastage is higher than in other systems of school partly because in the rural areas parents withdraw their children to put them to gainful or household work. Moreover, the Indian community makes relatively greater use of the national schools than any other of the non-English-speaking domiciled groups. The medium of instruction is usually Tamil and the curriculum contains the usual subjects. Final examinations for the senior classes are conducted by education departments.

The policy for primary education for the future will be to provide schools of the national type but primary education will be given free to children between 6 and 12 years of age. No new national school will be provided in an area where it would make the existing school wholly or partially redundant without giving the managers of that school adequate warning and opportunity to conform to the national type; while if existing schools conform to the national type they will not be replaced. The national schools will be of two types distinguished by their use of Malay or of English as the medium of instruction. Where Malay is so used, English will also be given to all the pupils throughout the whole of the school course; where English is the medium, Malay will be taught

from the beginning of the third year of the school course. In addition, in all schools where there is a demand from 15 or more pupils of the same standard, Kuo Yu or Tamil will also be taught.

The different school systems have varying arrangements for training their teachers. Teachers for English schools are trained in two ways: through the University of Malaya, where graduates take the one-year normal course; and through the normal classes—centres giving a three-year course to selected secondary school leavers. These centres work closely with the schools, both Government and aided, which nominate students and at which the students do their practical work throughout the week.

A parallel scheme of correspondence tuition is provided for remote rural schools. Vernacular school teachers who wish to specialize in the teaching of English may take advantage of a probation scheme; they are attached for two years to schools where the direct method is used and they receive an appropriate salary during this time.

The Malay school system is served by the federation's two training colleges. Students are drawn from Malay primary schools by qualifying examination; the course of three years provides both general education and professional training. In addition, a series of teacher training classes on similar lines to the English system are organized throughout the federation. To meet the shortage of Malay teachers pupil-teacher classes have been introduced where the primary school leaver stays on at his school to teach under the supervision of the headmaster.

For Chinese schools there are two arrangements sponsored by the Government; teacher training classes of three years duration, and the senior normal course conducted in middle schools. Final examinations are set by the Department of Education.

Indian teachers are trained by the training class system, which now extends over three years as with other groups.

A common feature of Malayan education is the provision of in-service training by means of intensive short courses.

Mauritius

The Education Department of Mauritius operates by authority of the Education Ordinance 1944 and the Education Code Regulations made under Section 25 of the Ordinance. Under the Ordinance all Government-aided and private education is subject in varying degrees to the control of the Director of Education, who is advised by a number of committees. The law allows compulsion to be introduced when appropriate, but primary education, although free, is not compulsory except in three experimental areas.

The administrative machinery consists of the Director of Education, a deputy director, two assistant directors, a youth organizer, an adult education officer, a visual education officer, school medical officer, a school dentist, and the primary school inspectorate. There is no delegation of authority by the central department on a locality basis, but there is some delegation to aided schools, which are responsible to the director through their own religious educational authority (Roman Catholic, Church of England, Hindu, Muslim).

Annual recurrent expenditure is met entirely from colonial revenue but imperial funds are available for capital expenditure on development projects such as the five-year development programme now in operation to provide more and better school buildings and facilities and to expand and improve teacher training. Private approved schools receive aid mainly in the form of subsidies towards payment of the teachers' salaries. Free milk and yeast are distributed daily to all primary pupils, who are also provided with free books and equipment.

The normal primary course consists of a 'beginners' class' and six grades, standards I to VI. The age of entry is five years, but those who complete the course in seven years are not forced to leave school on grounds of age and some stay to 14 or 15 years of age. In a few primary schools there is provision for education beyond standard VI for those pupils who, mainly because fees are charged, do not wish to go to a secondary school. Primary education is co-educational, and the curriculum includes English, French, arithmetic, geography, hygiene, singing and physical training, with domestic science, handicrafts and gardening in some schools. Other local languages are taught outside school hours. The language of instruction in the first four primary grades is usually French or Creole or one of the Indian languages and from standard IV it is English. Progression from one standard to another is by internal examination. There is a leaving certificate examination for standard VI pupils, with a special scholarship examination leading to free education in the Government or aided secondary schools as the pupil chooses.

Primary teachers are trained through the training college. The full course lasts for two years and shorter six-month courses are also run as a temporary measure to help meet the call for teachers. Trainees are selected by examination and interview from applicants who have some secondary schooling. Owing to the shortage of trained teachers, there is a large number of untrained teachers; 89 per cent of the teachers in 1952 had not completed a secondary school course and 17 per cent had had no form of teacher training, but, to improve teaching standards, short courses,

refresher courses and part-time courses for teachers in service are being used. The curriculum of teacher training includes instruction in both professional and general subjects and a certain amount of practice teaching.

Entry into the permanent teaching service is by way of the teachers' training college or by special recognition of good teaching ability. Permanent teachers are pensionable.

There has recently been a considerable increase in rates of salary, but the economic and social status of teachers is still lower than for comparable professions.

Netherlands New Guinea

Education in New Guinea is controlled by special regulations adopted by the Netherlands Government. The immediate aim is to spread literacy and to raise the primitive society to a level at which participation in modern society is possible. There is at present no compulsion in education. Government regulations control the standard and content of education, which is mainly carried out by missions.

Education is controlled by the Cultural Affairs Branch of the local Government. The head of the branch is also the General Inspector of Education, under whom there are two inspectors in charge of Western and indigenous education respectively.

Management of mission schools is in the hands of the mission corporations. Each corporation has its school manager, who is responsible for payment of salaries and for compliance of the schools with governmental requirements. The indigenous population can exert influence on educational organizations through church councils, the Council for Popular Education and advisory councils.

Expenditure on education in 1951 represented approximately 5 per cent of total government expenditure. Most of the money is disbursed in the form of subsidies to missions.

There are two types of village school: civilization schools, having a two-year course, and public primary schools providing a three-year course in the village schools, to prepare them for more advanced education at teacher training institutions, the school of administration, junior technical schools and other vocational schools. The content of the village education is more social than intellectual, and, apart from the teaching of literacy, the major part of instruction is devoted to hygiene, agriculture, manual work, music and singing.

General primary schools in the towns offer a six-year course. They give instruction to more non-indigenous than indigenous

children. European schools cater for a small number of indigenous students and for European children. They are similar in organization to the general primary schools. Many general primary schools and European schools are boarding institutions.

The language of instruction in all primary schools except for the European schools is Malay, with Dutch used alternatively in the general primary schools. In some village schools teaching is in the vernacular.

There is a serious shortage of qualified teachers. Thirty per cent of the teachers in village schools in 1951 were untrained. Teacher training schools train teachers for village education. The course is of two years at the secondary level. Attempts are being made to improve the quality and training of teachers.

The curriculum of village education is constantly under review and the needs of the community are being considered. Plans are being drawn up to follow up the teaching in the village schools to ensure that hygiene and social knowledge learnt at school is not forgotten after leaving.

New Caledonia

Education in New Caledonia, which is administered by France, is governed by the Decree of 22 March 1905 and a number of administrative orders. Administration of education is vested in the director, who is assisted in the administration of primary schools by a teacher sent out from France. Expenditure on education is met both from the local budget and a contribution from the administering authority out of the investment funds for economic and social development (FIDES).

Primary education is similar to that in France and leads to the primary school certificate. There is a public training college for the training of indigenous teachers.

Senior teachers are recruited from France and hold qualifications necessary for teachers in France. Teachers are public servants and their recruitment, probation, promotion, remuneration and superannuation rates are regulated by rules laid down.

North-Eastern New Guinea

Education in the Trust Territory of New Guinea, administered by the Government of Australia, is regulated by the Papua and New Guinea Act which was brought into operation on 1 July 1949. The Department of Education is one of 11 departments of the territorial administration, all controlled by the Department of the Government Secretary.

The revenue of the administration is derived from direct grants by the Government of Australia and from internal revenue. In 1952 approximately 5 per cent of the total budget was allocated to education. Education is free but not compulsory, though enabling legislation for compulsion exists and will be enforced in one area at a time as it becomes possible. The Department of Education comprises, under the Director, a headquarters division dealing with the public library and inspection; a general division responsible for the organization and supervision of non-technical schools, pre-vocational training, teacher training and higher education of a non-industrial nature; a technical division dealing with technical training centres and vocational guidance; a special services division controlling physical education, games and scouting, visual education, broadcasting, publications, arts and handcrafts, music and curriculum and research; and a female education division which organizes women's centres for domestic and agricultural education, and girls' schools.

There are five types of primary school, four for the indigenous inhabitants: village schools, conducted by missions, giving four years of instruction in the vernacular with the teaching of English in the fourth year; the village higher schools, conducted by both the administration and missions, offering a four-year post-village school course with instruction in English commencing in the second year; area schools serving a number of villages and conducted both by the administration and missions; central schools, conducted by the administration and missions, offering a three-year technical and vocational courses at the secondary level. In addition there are primary schools for Europeans, Asians and part-natives, conducted by the administration and the missions.

In mission schools most of the teachers are natives, but in administration schools the proportion of European teachers is higher. Native teachers are trained at the higher training centres at Karavat and Finschhafen, but a large number of native teachers have had little organized training. European teachers are required to have the same qualifications as teachers in the Australian states, and in fact, most of them have been recruited from the Australian teaching service, but these teachers are required to undergo a one-year course of training supplementary to their professional training, at the Australian School of Pacific Administration. Teaching appointments are permanent, after the probationary period, and carry the same leave and superannuation rights as other appointments in the public service of the territories. Salaries of European teachers are somewhat higher than those for corresponding positions in Australia and, in addition, carry territorial and district allowances. Native teachers are paid at rates compa-

rable with other native employment and are supplied with free quarters and food. All native teachers work under European supervision. The educational aims of the administrative authority are: universal literacy, training for skilled trades and professions; emphasis on education in relation to planned projects in community development; recognition of education centres as the foci of community interests and fostering youth activities and co-operative movements. Special efforts, however, are made to retain the indigenous native culture and to encourage the natives to continue their native crafts. The curriculum of primary education is therefore not academic and lays sufficient emphasis on handcraft and community activities. Teaching is also as far as possible active.

Singapore

The Government of the Crown Colony of Singapore regulates education by means of ordinances. The Education Ordinance of 1948 lays down the main lines for administration and organization. In 1947 a 10-year programme was adopted for the introduction of universal free primary education in the colony by 1956.

The Department of Education is headed by a director and comprises a number of officials responsible for the inspection and supervision of schools, either on a language medium basis, or for a special subject.

The educational history of Singapore is closely linked with that of the Malayan mainland and many features are common to the two systems. In Singapore the same four types of school are found as in the Federation of Malaya, i.e. English, Malay, Chinese and Indian, but the policy of the Government under the 10-year programme is to develop regional schools, that is, English, serving all communities, so as to provide a common system of education for the colony. Schools may be public or private, and the latter qualify for grants-in-aid provided they comply with the Registration of Schools Ordinance. The system of state aid is being progressively extended so as to make all primary education in registered schools, both vernacular and regional, free.

At the level of higher education the colony and the federation combine their resources, and two institutions situated in Singapore, e.g. the College of Medicine and Raffles College, are affiliated to the University of Malaya. The professional colleges in the federation admit students from Singapore.

The aim and content of primary education and of primary teacher training in Singapore are the same as in the Federation of Malaya.

Western Samoa

Education in the Trust Territory of Western Samoa, administered by New Zealand, is controlled by the Department of Education under a director. He is responsible for the organization and supervision of the village schools, being assisted by seven Samoan district inspectors. He also maintains close liaison with the New Zealand Department of Education through the Officer for Islands Education in New Zealand, who is assisted by the Inspector of Islands Schools. Education is carried out in the territory in both government and mission schools. The schools maintained by the religious missions are not in general subject to Government control, nor do they receive any direct financial assistance from the Government. A small number of missionary schools are, however, under direct control of the Education Department and their staffs draw government salaries. Nevertheless, a certain amount of co-operation is maintained with the various missions engaged in educational activities in the territory.

Funds for educational expenditure are derived from public revenue of the territory and by grants by the administering authority: the latter are obtained from the trading profits on the New Zealand Reparation States comprising areas of land formerly owned by Germans and now held and operated by the administering authority.

The Government maintains village primary schools providing a four-year course. District schools are planned for each of the seven educational districts to give a further two-year course to selected pupils from the village schools, but only two district schools were functioning in 1952. Above the village and district school level are two residential middle primary schools for boys, where the emphasis is on agricultural education. Two European primary schools provide a syllabus approximating to that of a New Zealand school up to standard four. Instruction in schools above village and district level is in English. Mission schools are mostly of the elementary pastor or catechist type. Pastor schools aim at making their pupils literate in Samoan and teaching them arithmetic. Instruction in all the primary schools is in Samoan, with lessons in English, the Samoans placing greater emphasis on the latter in the district schools.

One training college is maintained by the Government, providing a three-year course for Samoan teachers. Selected teachers are also sent each year to New Zealand, or to Fiji, for specialized training for periods of 6 to 12 months. Refresher courses for teachers in mission schools are made available by the Education Department. Samoan teachers in Government schools graduate

from the local training college, and are paid and treated as Government public servants. New Zealand teachers employed in Western Samoa are graduates from the University of New Zealand and training colleges. Teachers seconded from New Zealand for service in Western Samoa belong to the New Zealand Educational Institute.

SUMMARY

The outline above has perforce been presented in separate sections for each country and territory; but the reader will have found the points of resemblance and difference which characterize the region as a whole. The administration of education varies with the country, ranging from the federal and decentralized pattern of India and Pakistan to the federal but fairly centralized systems of Australia and Malaya, and then to Thailand and Afghanistan where the central authority is all-important. Effective legislation for compulsory education is not common in the region, Australia and New Zealand being most advanced in their provisions; but a number of states and territories have permissive legislation which accompanies the experimental approach towards declaring compulsory education areas in parts of the country. On the whole, the provision of schools is deemed more important than the enactment of idealistic laws. The financing of education is related to the administrative pattern; with few exceptions, such as India and the Philippines, funds are provided mainly by the central Government.

With the single exception of the Philippines, the region suffers from a shortage of teachers, and a wide variety of temporary expedients have been adopted to deal with the situation; Indonesia is particularly active in this respect. When so much teacher training is regarded as provisional, perhaps no generalizations are possible about methods and content. There are, however, clear indications from all parts of the region that the form of teacher training is being studied afresh and revised—possibly under the stimulus of the emergency.

The primary school content is also in transition; but in practice it is still literary in most schools. The ratio of teachers to pupils and the percentage of the education budget devoted to the primary school vary widely between the states and territories.

This survey may conclude with a summary table of statistics for the latest available year. The reader is reminded once more that direct comparisons between countries are risky, because methods of gathering and presenting data are not yet sufficiently standardized. The table should serve as an overall survey for the region rather than as an instrument of analysis.

Statistical Data on Primary Education in 21 Countries and Territories of South Asia and the Pacific

Country and year	Estimated population: Total pop. midyear 1952 (1000's)	Estimated population: Population 5-14 yrs. (1000's)	Provision of schools: Regulation number of primary schools	Provision of schools: Total primary enrolment (1000's)	Provision of schools: Percentage female enrolment
Afghanistan (1950)	12,000	...	325	71	3
Australia (1950)	8,431	1,297	*9,338	1,175	49
Burma (1952)	18,674	4,450	5,138	596	*25
Cambodia (1952)	[1]3,748	*980–1,000	2,170	174	17
Ceylon (1950)	7,742	1,711	5,645	1,105	46
India (1950)	356,829	88,068	210,354	18,384	*27
Indonesia (1951)	76,500	*16,000–20,000	26,670	5,318	*32
Laos (1949)	[2]1,186	*250–320	709	43	19
New Zealand (1951)	1,947	336	2,406	304	48
Pakistan (1951)	75,842	*16,000–20,000	40,295	3,212	*25
Philippines (1951)	20,264	[3]5,682	23,891	3,932	47
Thailand (1951)	18,836	5,123	19,695	2,857	47
Viet-Nam (1952)	25,000	[4]6,800	6,434	798	37
TERRITORIES					
Federation of Malaya (1951)	5,337	1,329	4,038	616	34
Fiji (1951)	298	75	437	53	44
Mauritius (1952)	500	113	263	72	42
New Caledonia (1952)	65	*20	189	11	46
New Guinea (Australia) (1952)	1,103	361	2,626	95	38
New Guinea (Netherlands) (1951)	1,020	*200–275	649	31	42
Singapore (1951)	1,045	[3]243	490	135	34
Western Samoa (1951)	85	22	498	39	51

... Data not available.
* Estimated figure.
1 1948.
2 1950.
3 Midyear 1950 estimate.
4 1951 estimate.

Statistical Data on Primary Education in 21 Countries and Territories of South Asia and the Pacific (*cont.*)

Country and year	*Compulsory education*		
	Length of primary course (years)	*Age limits of compulsion*	*Duration of compulsory schooling (years)*
Afghanistan (1950)	6	.	.
Australia (1950)	6	6–14, 15, 16	7, 8, 9
Burma (1952)	4	6–11	5
Cambodia (1952)	6	7–13	6
Ceylon (1950)	5	5–14	7
India (1950)	4, 5, 6	6–10, 11, 12, 14	4, 5, 6, 8
Indonesia (1951)	4, 6	.	.
Laos (1949)	...	...	...
New Zealand (1951)	8	7–15	8
Pakistan (1951)	5	7–11	4
Philippines (1951)	6	7–14	7
Thailand (1951)	4	7–14	5
Viet-Nam (1952)	3, 5	6–14	5
TERRITORIES			
Federation of Malaya (1951)	6	6–12	6
Fiji (1951)	5	6–14	5
Mauritius (1952)	7	5–12	7
New Caledonia (1952)	6	...	...
New Guinea (Australia) (1952)	5	.	.
New Guinea (Netherlands) (1951)	6	.	.
Singapore (1951)	6	6–12	6
Western Samoa (1951)	6	...	...

... Data not available. . Category does not apply.

STATISTICAL DATA ON PRIMARY EDUCATION IN 21 COUNTRIES AND TERRITORIES OF SOUTH ASIA AND THE PACIFIC (*cont.*)

Country and year	Finance: Total exp. on education	Finance: % of budget exp.	Finance: % of nat'l income	Finance: % on primary schooling	Primary school-teachers: No. of teachers	Primary school-teachers: Pupil-teacher ratio	Primary school-teachers: Number in training
Afghanistan (1950)	[1]47,000,000 afghanis	16	...	39	2,262	35	463
Australia (1950)	48,000,000 Austr. pounds	8	1.6	25	37,900	31	5,175
Burma (1952)	[1]46,000,000 kyats	...	[2]1.1	44	10,815	56	[2]204
Cambodia (1952)	150,000,000 piastres	*12	...	...	4,770	37	468
Ceylon (1950)	127,000,000 Ceylon rupees	16	[1]2.8	[1]81.6	28,736	38	[1]2,309
India (1950)	769,000,000 Ind. rupees	...	[3]0.49	45	534,600	34	70,031
Indonesia (1951)	1,897,000,000 rupiahs	15	...	58	89,825	59	42,617
Laos (1949)	21,000,000 piastres	...	...	79	1,250	34	262
New Zealand (1951)	17,000,000 NZ pounds	...	[2]2.5	38	9,997	30	2,653
Pakistan (1951)	88,000,000 Pak. rupees	5	*0.53	*41	88,697	36	6,145
Philippines (1951)	144,000,000 Phil. pesos	...	[4]3.1	91	80,275	49	4,131
Thailand (1951)	179,000,000 baht	...	[4]0.6	33	79,627	36	2,595
Viet-Nam (1952)	255,000,000 piastres	*6	...	...	15,022	53	[2]99
TERRITORIES							
Federation of Malaya (1951)	81,000,000 Mal. dollars	...	*1.52	*65	18,872	33	7,453
Fiji (1951)	503,000 Fiji pounds	11	.	*63	1,565	34	157
Mauritius (1952)	5,149,000 Maur. rupees	*16	.	[2]54	2,083	34	[2]142
New Caledonia (1952)	356,000,000 Fr. francs	17	.	...	...	...	36
New Guinea (Australia) (1952)	424,000 Austr. pounds	*5	.	...	178	19	61
New Guinea (Netherlands) (1951)	3,714,000 Neth. guilders	*5	.	77	933	33	103
Singapore (1951)	16,000,000 Mal. dollars	8	.	57	4,019	34	1,247
Western Samoa (1951)	113,000 NZ pounds	18	.	70	384	35	147

* Estimated figure. . Category does not apply. [1] 1951. [3] 1948.
... Data not available. [2] 1950. [4] 1949.

C H A P T E R   T H R E E

DELIBERATIONS OF THE CONFERENCE

The Conference on Free and Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific met in Bombay from 12 to 23 December 1952. It brought together a number of distinguished educators and educational administrators from virtually every part of the vast region that stretches from Afghanistan to New Zealand, from the Philippines to Mauritius.[1] Other parts of the world were represented also, in the consultants invited by Unesco from the Near East, Europe and the United States of America, and in official observers.

The task set the conference was essentially that of deliberation. From the varied experience of the nations in the region it should be possible to interpret and generalize: to reach an understanding of the educational situation, difficulties and intentions of the several states; and on this basis to isolate the common problems that beset compulsory education, to express the guiding principles which should be followed if compulsory schooling is to be developed. The conference, then, by a process of exchange and discussion, was expected to arrive at a number of conclusions—partly general and partly practical—which would be pertinent to the region. As such, the conclusions are formulated in the shape of recommendations addressed to the governments of the states and territories in the region. But since the issue of compulsory education is not a purely national concern, the conference was bound to examine international action as well. Some of the recommendations are therefore directed to international bodies, in the hope that the programmes of these bodies may be shaped to accord more closely with the needs expressed by regional educators.

The method of conduct of the conference was fairly simple. After an inaugural meeting the conference met in plenary session to discuss the magnitude of the problems confronting compulsory education. Thereafter the delegates broke up into three commissions, to deal with the technical questions placed before them: administration, curriculum and teacher training. One other general meeting took place (on 17 December) to examine the Unesco document on international assistance in the field of free and com-

[1] See Appendix B for the list of participants.

pulsory education; and at this point a further committee was appointed to draft recommendations on the topic. Towards the end of the period the conference met again in plenary session, when the four draft documents from the commissions and the committee were brought forward for general debate. The finally accepted text contained 90 recommendations[1] covering all aspects of the problem considered by the conference.

The purpose of the present chapter is to describe in a condensed way the discussions and the points of view which gave rise to the final report. It will be most convenient to follow the procedure of the conference itself, namely to devote separate sections to the early plenary meetings, to the three commissions and to a concluding summary.

THE MAGNITUDE OF THE PROBLEM

Not all the delegations contributed to the deliberations at the plenary meetings, nor was it intended that these should become a mere recital of information and statement of problems. The representative of the Director-General of Unesco pointed out at the beginning that, while facts and figures were indispensable for the work of the conference, it would be better to interpret them and draw attention to general problems arising out of them, in particular the close connexion in each country between the level of education and the level of the general economic development and standard of life. The meetings, therefore, focused attention on some of the chief problems encountered by most countries of the region and attempted to indicate in specific terms possible solutions to the problems for the careful examination of the commissions.

The statements and observations by the different delegations are summarized below. Such general facts as the characteristics of each country's educational system have already been reported in the previous chapter, so the ground is here cleared for more personal—and national—expressions of opinion.

India

The total population of the country is at present 360 millions, but it is increasing at the rate of 1 per cent a year, and the proportion of children to the general population is much higher than that of the Western countries, as the average span of life is only 23 years compared to 56 years in England. The total income of central and state governments and local bodies together is Rs.7.51 billion, while the estimated cost of universal primary education amounts to more.

[1] See Appendix A for full text approved by the conference.

Hence, instead of imitating European educational systems, a new system based on austere methods and techniques, and in keeping with conditions prevailing in the country, had to be evolved to reach the goal of free and compulsory education. The financial implications of the problem had to be tackled by both short-range and long-range plans designed to achieve economy and efficiency and to eliminate wastage. The fight on the economic front to increase national income and raise the standard of living of the people is being closely tied up with schemes for the expansion and improvement of education.

Viet-Nam

The estimated population of the country is at present 14 millions, but this figure is rising as the zone controlled by the Government expands. The school population, based on three years of schooling is just under 1.5 million, of which about a million are without schools. Some 80,000 children are found in private schools charging fees. There is an acute shortage of trained teachers and almost all classes are congested with 80 or more pupils each. The standard of living of the people is low and it is necessary to give financial assistance to needy parents to enable them to send their children to school. For introducing free and compulsory education, about 61,000 new classes are needed, involving an expenditure of about 1,400 million piastres for building, 110 million piastres for furniture, 50 million piastres for school materials and equipment and 300 million piastres for the 17,000 additional teachers. An extra financial burden is involved in repairing or rebuilding about 2,000 schools damaged as a result of the disturbances in the country.

Pakistan

The children of school age are estimated to number about 9.5 millions, of whom two-thirds are still out of school. The six-year plan of educational development, in operation since 1951, is expected to provide by 1957 schooling for barely half of those not now at school. Moreover, there are the problems of the rapid increase of population, due to a high birthrate, and of providing trained teachers for existing and new schools. The country is, therefore, in need of financial and technical assistance to achieve the objective of free and compulsory education.

Indonesia

There are many physical and educational difficulties in the way of

compulsory primary education in the country. Indonesia covers the huge area of 2 million square kilometres scattered in 3,000 islands with poor internal communications; the component peoples are at different stages of development and civilization, but in general the population in increasing rapidly, the proportion of school children is high, and there is an acute shortage of qualified teachers, school buildings and teaching materials. However, the Indonesian public has shown a fervent desire for the education of the children and a keenness to contribute to the development of the community. In 1950, 11,000 teachers were trained by emergency courses, thus providing schooling for an additional 500,000 children in 1951. This programme is to continue until 1955, by which time there should be provision to train twice the number of teachers every year. It is expected that after 1961 there will be sufficient teachers in the schools to make it practicable to introduce free and compulsory education.

Thailand

The progress of compulsory education since its introduction about 30 years ago has been unsatisfactory due to the rigid curriculum of the primary school, the lack of qualified teachers and weaknesses in the traditional administrative methods. Only 20 per cent of teachers are trained. A scheme has been drawn up to establish a chain of teacher-training schools, one per province, but funds and expert help are needed to implement it. To attract bright people to the teaching profession, teachers' salaries are being raised and a teachers' institute has been set up to improve service conditions. The administration of education is being decentralized in the interests of efficiency. Additional funds to improve the position are being included in the annual education budget, but the sum available is still far short of requirements.

New Zealand

There is free, compulsory and secular education of good quality for every child of school-going age, including the deaf, blind, mentally handicapped and sick and invalid children. The system of teacher training is effective although a few uncertificated teachers still remain. All types of schools are open to Maori children but there are also special Maori schools in which emphasis is placed on fostering the indigenous culture.

Australia

The position in Australia is practically the same as in New Zealand, except that there are a large number of single-teacher schools, and accordingly a new technique of teacher training has been developed to enable the teacher to take several classes of different age groups without impairing the quality of the teaching.

Ceylon

Efforts are being made to provide universal free and compulsory education for the children, but the main difficulty has been lack of funds. In order to meet the acute shortage of food, the country is obliged to spend Rs. 250 million a year in food subsidies. It would materially help Sinhalese education if the United Nations and its Specialized Agencies could advance loans to solve the food problem and provide funds to meet a portion of the capital expenditure which free and compulsory education entails. The problem of the increasing population due to the high birthrate is one which concerns the government of the country as a whole and cannot be treated in isolation by the Ministry of Education.

Afghanistan

Primary, secondary and even university courses are free and include the provision of books, clothing, board and allowance for the students. The annual budget of the Education Ministry was increased by 20 per cent in 1952. A scheme for establishing 1,000 three-year schools has been launched and 200 new schools were opened during 1952. One aim of the new scheme is to provide a curriculum related to the experience of students; and to achieve this, a special committee has been set up. In order to attract bright youths to the teaching profession, teachers' salaries have been increased and provision made for a number of foreign scholarships.

French Territories

There are two groups of these territories in the region, viz. New Caledonia and the islands of the central Pacific. In New Caledonia, where 50 per cent of the population are of French origin, education is virtually compulsory for all children of school age, and the percentage of attendance is 90. Compulsory education has also been applied in the scattered central Pacific islands, but teaching in these parts is too short and superficial and has not made

a strong impact on the minds of the native peoples, except perhaps in Tahiti, where teachers (mostly women) have shown a devotion to teaching. France has realized that, to remedy the situation, curricula and teaching methods will have to be adapted to local needs, problems and cultures, and steps are being taken in this direction. Financially and administratively compulsory education is no problem, as the special development fund (FIDES) of the metropolitan country gives technical assistance to oversea territories in the form of subsidies to schools, and there is a strong local demand for education.

Dutch Territories

Indigenous communities in New Guinea are small, scattered and at a low level of social organization. The main difficulties in education are the lack of transport and the problem of having to use a medium of instruction that is foreign to the people. However, with the gradual spread of education of the present type and the opening up of the country, the obstacles to compulsory education will tend to disappear.

ADMINISTRATIVE, FINANCIAL AND LEGISLATIVE ASPECTS

The commission dealing with this side of the problem of compulsory education—the politics and economics, as it were—found that its topic was closely tied to the varying backgrounds and practices of the several countries represented. To generalize from experience is no easy matter in such a case. On the other hand, the plenary meetings had shown that delegates from all the states were sufficiently in agreement on the aims and purposes of education to enable the commission to devote itself to the more technical questions. A consideration of desirable administrative procedures had no need to overlap with the work of the other commissions on teacher training and curriculum.

For practical purposes the commission agreed to base its discussions on the themes put forward in the Unesco working paper, viz. planning, administration, provision of compulsory schooling, finance and legislation. The recommendations finally drawn up (numbered 1 to 25 in the final text) correspond to these main headings.

Planning

The commission reviewed the extent to which plans for compul-

sory education were being drawn up by the countries within the region, and also the methods of preparing and implementing them. Experience as to both the type of planning and the authorities responsible for their preparation and execution, varied from state to state. In India, for instance, a five-year operational plan had been drawn up by the central Government on the basis of data submitted by the states, but the responsibility for executing the plan rested with the individual states, which also had authority to make detailed variations in particular areas according to the conditions prevailing. This method of preparing and implementing plans provoked some general discussion as to the part which more local bodies should play in planning for compulsory education. It was noted that, in Pakistan, district boards had previously had responsibilities for the administration of compulsory education but that recently most of the provincial Governments had considered it expedient to take these powers over from the district boards.

In Netherlands New Guinea each region had the responsibility for drawing up its own plan. In the British territories plans had been drawn up at the instance of the United Kingdom Government but the Government of each territory was responsible for its own plan; their common aim was to provide all-round education, including primary, secondary and technical education, so that the people would ultimately reach a stage of development where self-government could be introduced.

It seemed that in most cases within the region plans had been prepared by the central governments and that it was intended that compulsory education should be free. In the Philippines, however, the plan provided for free compulsory education at the lower stage only; in order to provide funds for full compulsory education, attempts were being made to improve the economic condition of the people and also to promote local interest so that communities would support their own schools.

The consultant suggested that, although what had been said at the conference indicated that many countries within the region had become aware of the advantages of sound planning as against haphazard development, there was not a great deal of evidence to indicate that local people or local governing bodies actively participated in the planning of their educational affairs. He agreed that large-scale central plans expressed in general terms were desirable, but wondered whether they would be of much practical use unless they were broken down into smaller, detailed plans. These latter are preferably prepared by local bodies, or at any rate in consultation with local people, and should show relevant data such as the number of children of school age (derived from a local census), existing schools, new schools needed, number of teachers

needed, and the cost of paying the teachers, providing the new buildings and equipment, etc. The French delegate agreed with this view, but said that centrally prepared plans should not merely lay down directives to be carried out by states or local governing bodies, but should include adequate budgetary and legislative provision. Some countries have found that plans at two levels are required, i.e. a long-term statement of aims and a short-term operational break-down of the former into a working plan. The short-term plan should be based on realistic targets.

The general conclusion of the commission at this point was that, while the type of plan must relate to the type of government and there must be comprehensive planning on the national level, it is also desirable that there should be full consultation with local governments and local authorities in both the preparation and the execution of plans. Notwithstanding, provision must also exist for the periodic revision of plans in the light of changing circumstances. The commission felt that sound revision would best be achieved at central level by the establishment in Ministries of Education of small compulsory education research units.

Discussion then moved to the desirable or possible time span for implementing compulsory education plans and the method of deciding priorities within plans. The general view was that it would be most difficult to lay down any definite time span, for this depends upon factors peculiar to each country, especially economic conditions and the effectiveness of the educational administration. The consultant outlined two ways of carrying out a plan: the first might be called the 'whole-hogger' programme and the second a piecemeal method. The former would be practicable in countries where the foundation had been laid by the previous provision of teacher training colleges and secondary schools from which the future teachers would come, where the prospect for educational revenue was both adequate and regular, and where the administration was experienced and effective. He felt, however, that for most of the countries within the region the more piecemeal approach would be indicated. In practical terms it was possible to declare education compulsory in areas where school accommodation of a sort was already available, to extend compulsion gradually in places where the response to facilities for voluntary school attendance had been encouraging, and to select certain backward areas for pilot projects in which experience of the worst difficulties of promoting compulsory education could be obtained. On the other hand the Indian delegate felt that it would be better to plan for compulsory education throughout the country by limiting the duration of schooling than to plan for the full duration of compulsory education in certain areas to the neglect of others. The

commission accepted this view: compulsory education might well be introduced by starting at first with a short age-range in the primary schools which could gradually be extended as and when resources permitted, and all plans should include provision for special attention to the needs of backward areas. It was further agreed that in areas where full-time schooling is not yet practicable, a start should be made with part-time primary education as a temporary expedient.

Discussion then turned to the desirability of securing public participation in the preparation and execution of plans of compulsory education. Most delegates stressed the desirability of gaining the full support and backing of the people for compulsory education plans, emphasizing that this was of primary importance in countries professing the democratic way of life. As an instance of sound practice, reference was made to the United Kingdom device of publicizing a simplified version of educational legislation and encouraging discussion of it throughout the country before it was finally passed by Parliament. Adequate provision for enlisting local support for compulsory schooling ought to be made when plans are being drawn up.

The interdependence of compulsory education and plans for economic development and social welfare was generally accepted. This brought into focus the desirability of co-ordinating the arrangements of the various ministries which had some share in implementing the educational plans. There is much to be said for consultation between those who provide the schools, those who have to find the money and those responsible for social welfare and child labour affairs. The commission agreed, therefore, that steps should be taken to ensure that all educational plans are closely related to plans for economic and social advancement, that there should be proper consultation and co-ordination between the ministries and departments concerned, and that this might well be achieved by the creation of joint interdepartmental committees.

The commission then considered how far mutual and international assistance could play a part in the preparation of plans of compulsory education. The region itself is well-favoured in the matter of mutual assistance, since the component countries are at different stages in the achievement of compulsory education and therefore have much to gain by passing on the results of their experiences to one another. The consultant suggested that it was desirable to set up within the region one or two regional compulsory education bureaux designed to promote mutual assistance, to serve as clearing houses for the interchange of information and data, and to act generally as an 'idea carrier' from country to country. The chairman agreed that systematic exchange of this

nature would be most useful, especially if the means used for introducing compulsory education and the rates of progress were recorded. The commission approved placing the proposal in its recommendations. Moreover, although each country must draw up its own plan for promoting or extending compulsory education, a good deal could be gained from a second opinion based on experience elsewhere. The implication here was that Unesco should encourage technical assistance by providing experts who might help in the drawing up or examination of national plans of compulsory education. For those countries where there is little tradition of local administration, this form of international assistance might extend also to advisers with particular experience in the local administration of education.

Administration

At the outset of discussion on this theme the chairman and the consultant made the point that one of the first tasks of any Government embarking on a programme of compulsory education should be that of reviewing and, if necessary, overhauling its machinery of educational administration. Delegates examined the relative merits of central and local administration, or of a combination of both, and generally agreed that, whatever the form of educational administration, it must, to be effective, conform to certain criteria. These criteria must include: investing the Ministry of Education with adequate powers; relieving the Ministry of administrative details which may be undertaken more efficiently by other bodies such as local administrations, so that the Ministry itself may concentrate on policy and principles; investing the local administration with sufficient powers; ensuring continuity of policy at headquarters, irrespective of party changes, by setting up an independent advisory council of education; providing security of tenure for permanent officials. The delegate from Pakistan further suggested that, in addition to standing advisory councils of education at the centre, there should be advisory committees at provincial and district levels.

When discussion turned on the respective roles of central and local administration, it was clear that each country's educational administration depended so much upon its history, politics and geography that it would not be practicable to advocate one type of administration as against the other. On the other hand, both the Indian delegate and the consultant put forward the view that central and local administration of education do not have to be mutually exclusive, and that the ideal is a partnership in which each performs functions which the other could only carry out with diffi-

culty. Several delegates pointed out that the more local the administration, the more opportunity there may be of evolving educational provision peculiarly relevant to local needs and conditions.

The delegate of the U.S.A. made a strong plea for an extension of systems of local administration in education. In any democratic form of government, the administration of education implied maximum participation by the people, and questions such as the selection of teachers, the choosing of textbooks, the form of examinations and the siting of schools should all be matters for local rather than provincial or central Government authorities. This view was generally supported by members of the commission. The delegate for Pakistan, however, while accepting the principle of local consultation, felt that advance towards compulsory education in his country would only be possible by leaving the actual administration of education in the hands of the provincial Governments.

The successful application of compulsory education implies control of school attendance, a subject on which opinions differed. While some delegates felt that this matter might be left to the teachers, the majority of the commission favoured the appointment of school attendance officers. These officers should undertake essentially local duties such as making and recording the census of school-age children, investigating cases and causes of non-attendance, ascertaining evidence of need where material inducements to school attendance are desirable, facilitating transport arrangements and, as the last sanction, instituting legal proceedings. The Indian delegate further suggested that school attendance officers needed proper training before they assumed their duties, and that emphasis should be placed on their functions as guides and counsellors rather than as policemen. The essential approach of the school attendance officers, said the delegate, should be to the individual parent and child and not an impersonal one through statistical returns.

Because of the number of social and economic obstacles in the way of compulsory schooling, material inducements to school attendance might often be necessary, including the provision of school meals, books, clothing, transport, and medical and dental treatment. The delegates from India and U.K. in particular felt that such inducements were an essential concomitant of compulsory education and should be provided. The siting of schools also affected attendance; for example, in rural areas primary schools need to be place conveniently close to the homes of the children; the upper classes for older children and a smaller group can be organized centrally to serve a number of lower schools.

The consultant from Egypt explained that the school meal

system was far more than an inducement to school attendance; it also enhanced the corporate life and social training of the school and promoted sound nutritional standards. However, as the provision of school meals could add considerably to educational costs, the commission agreed that parents should, according to their means, be encouraged to contribute towards the cost and that local co-operative arrangements for assisting a school meal service might well be investigated. The advantages of a local system of educational administration, together with machinery for consultation with parents, are evident in this case.

Within the primary school itself the two problems of wastage and retardation were remarked to be common in the region, although there was not enough scientific evidence of the extent and causes for a detailed analysis to be made. It was obvious, however, that when children dropped out before completing the course or repeated classes the result was so much wasted effort. Some delegates felt that the main factor here was economic, in that children of poor parents had to be withdrawn from school long before they could derive full benefit. Other contributory causes were a curriculum irrelevant to the needs of the children, sterile and unimaginative teaching methods and withdrawal by disillusioned parents who felt that what was taught in school was not sufficiently related to real life. The commission agreed that any educational administration responsible for compulsory education should make a study of the question and seek solutions for both wastage and retardation.

In conclusion the commission examined how far the administrative side of compulsory education might be assisted by international action. One possible method was direct technical assistance by the provision of an expert adviser for countries wishing to review their administrative arrangements. The exchange of experience was also important and might well be achieved through the establishment of regional compulsory education bureaux.

Provision of Compulsory Schooling

Under this theme the commission dealt with a number of the more specific questions which arise whenever schools are being established and which must therefore find a place in the planning and administration of compulsory education.

Perhaps the most basic question is how long the school course should last. Here the commission had to attempt a definition of the minimum objective aimed at while bearing in mind the financial and other resources available. Opinions naturally varied: the chairman favoured a minimum of eight years, the consultant

seven, the delegates from India and Pakistan five, and the Indonesian representative four years. It was finally agreed that whereas at least seven years were needed to obtain permanent results, many countries in the region might have to content themselves at first with a somewhat shorter period; even this, however, ought to be long enough to ensure what was described as permanent literacy. Children leaving school ought to retain their skills of reading, writing and calculating, and be able to put them to practical use in daily life.

The question of priorities for the establishment of new schools was discussed. The consultant suggested that, while this must be related to the general principles of planning, a special effort should be made to provide new schools in places where economic and social developments were taking place. Wherever such changes confront people with particular problems of adjustment, the process of adjustment can be facilitated by the right type of education. The Indian delegate, while agreeing with this point of view, emphasized the danger of neglecting backward areas. The U.K. delegate suggested that, to eliminate the cost of transport and hardships to young children, every effort should be made to build new schools within, say, two miles from children's homes. The commission agreed generally that it is desirable to give priority to new schools in places where nomadic peoples were in the process of forming permanent settlements, where land settlement schemes were being established, and where new industrial projects were contemplated.

The discussion then turned to the types of school which might be suitable for inclusion in compulsory education plans. The delegate from Afghanistan pointed out that co-educational schools were not possible in his country. Other speakers contributed their own experience in the matter: in parts of Egypt where co-education was not considered expedient, the authorities provided one building for both boys and girls but arranged separate hours of schooling for the two sexes. In parts of India there was some opposition to co-education, but objections were gradually being overcome; and Pakistan had found little difficulty in introducing co-education at the primary stage. The commission accepted the principle that, for educational, social and economic reasons, co-education was desirable in the primary school.

It was clear that, although larger schools were desirable, single-teacher schools would have to be continued in many countries in the region, particularly to serve sparsely populated rural areas. Teachers were inadequately prepared for this type of work, and the chairman suggested that selected teachers and training college tutors might be sent for a period of training to other countries of

the region where a specialized knowledge of teaching several children of different ages in the one class had been gained, so that they might afterwards return home and spread the technique of multiple age-group teaching.

A good deal of discussion took place on the contentious issue of whether the whole period of compulsory education should take place in one all-age school, or whether it should be divided into two stages, one primary and the other secondary or partly secondary. The aims of primary and secondary education are distinct, related as they are to the children's stages of development. Eventually the commission came to the view that it might well be possible in certain urban areas to divide the period of compulsory schooling so that the greater part is spent in the primary school and the last year or two in suitable types of secondary school. This arrangement has the further advantage of encouraging talented pupils to continue with a full secondary education course after they have passed the age of compulsory school attendance. The all-age school is likely to persist for many years, however, especially in rural areas, and here it would be desirable to introduce a vocational bias in the upper classes.

When the question of school buildings was taken up, the merits and demerits of prefabrication were discussed at some length. Although the type of school building must be peculiar to each country's needs, prefabrication had proved invaluable in certain emergency situations; for example, it would have been impossible to raise the school leaving age in the United Kingdom had not the Government made use of prefabricated school premises. The commission agreed that each country should encourage experiments in the use of suitable yet economical building materials and the exchange of data on school buildings.

With regard to supplies of school equipment, all delegates expressed the view that a country should produce its own teaching materials and that a part of the funds allocated to development plans should be earmarked to provide necessitous children with these items of equipment free of cost. Further discussion led to an extension of this opinion: essential textbooks and other necessary instructional materials should be provided free of charge to all pupils.

The role of the private school in schemes of compulsory education was the final topic raised. Several delegates stated that private schools should be encouraged and that they could, with such encouragement, play an effective part in supplementing the resources of the public school system. This view was generally approved by the commission, subject to certain safeguards such as minimum standards, qualification of teachers, liability to inspec-

tion and exemption of pupils from denominational religious instruction if their parents so desired. Some of the observers present took up the case for the private schools more vigorously. The observer for WFUNA urged not only that private schools should be utilized as means of augmenting the public educational system, but that voluntary effort in general should be mobilized to subsidize compulsory schooling. The observer for the Holy See supported this view. An over-rigid insistence on teachers' qualifications might impede the development of compulsory education, which, he maintained, was something more than mere instruction; some people were born teachers with a natural affinity for teaching and others, although technically unqualified, had a sound understanding of the educational needs of rural areas.

Finance

Every plan for introducing compulsory education has to include an estimate of the cost. Where the plan is a long-term one, it may be doubted whether such estimates have sufficient accuracy to be worth making: the fluctuation of prices, rising salary scales for teachers and population changes are all factors which upset predicted costs. When this point was being discussed the consultant gave further reasons for having a long-term estimate of costs, however rough: the figures would draw the attention of the Government (especially Ministries of Finance) and the public to the need for allotting continuous and increasing funds to education.

The entire commission agreed that finance represented the main obstacle in the way of compulsory education. The Indian delegate summed this up by saying that every available source of continuous and expanding revenue should be explored; funds should be obtained from as many sources as possible, i.e. federal, state, municipal and private. Further, a due proportion of any unexpected national windfalls, such as those accruing from the discovery of new mineral resources or from industrial exploitation, should be earmarked for educational purposes. In terms of central Government policy the members of the commission unanimously agreed that Ministries of Finance should be encouraged always to regard education as a first charge on their expenditures and to make it their last target for attack in times of national financial retrenchment.

While the main constant flow of educational revenue was likely to come from central Government taxation and other similar sources, every effort should be made to encourage the augmenting of national or state funds by monies derived from local revenues. Local education authorities should be empowered to levy rates or

local taxes to help pay for local plans of compulsory education. The U.S.A. delegate, who was strongly in favour of the local approach to compulsory education, suggested that a useful and tried means of stimulating local revenue for compulsory education was the device known as a *quid pro quo* grants system, which offered a pro-rata increase of the central or state Government grant for any approved increase in educational expenditure from local sources.

The French delegate and the observer for WFUNA, while they agreed that the bulk of revenue for compulsory education must come from public sources, whether central or local or both, were in favour of tapping all appropriate voluntary sources. Wealthy local organizations or persons should be encouraged to endow school buildings. The system of the school chest was also commended as a means of financing special services such as school meals.

Regarding capital expenditure for compulsory education, the delegates felt that it should preferably be kept separate from annual recurring expenditure and provided from sources such as the following: (a) part of development funds as in some colonial territories; (b) loan funds as in Australia; (c) endowment or trust funds which have outlived their original purposes and which might by legal process be diverted to educational use. The consultant suggested that consideration might well be given to the establishment of public educational capital loan boards, and possibly also to the creation, in certain more prosperous urban areas, of local capital loan funds which might attract the patriotism of persons interested in local schemes of educational development.

Some delegates pointed out, however, that there were countries where there existed a great and urgent desire for the development of compulsory education, but where devices for the creation of capital for educational purposes could not be considered, either because the national and local wealth was non-existent or because available capital was essential for other purposes. These delegates maintained that any planned advance towards the goal of compulsory education would have to depend upon assistance from international sources. One of the main proposals was that a proportion of funds provided by the International Bank for Reconstruction and Development for economic and industrial projects ought to be earmarked for the financing of consequential educational developments in the areas concerned. Such use of international financial assistance should be emphasized on the grounds that industrial and economic progress must, if it is to be fully successful, be accompanied by educational advance.

Legislation

The commission had no time to consider fully the legislative aspects of compulsory education. A general discussion of the theme brought agreement on certain principles which were necessary for effective legislation. As far as possible, free and compulsory education should be safeguarded as a fundamental article of state constitutions. The laws themselves should be so drafted as to minimize the chances of having the provisions evaded; clauses are therefore needed to define precisely: the age-limits of compulsory full-time attendance; the age-limits of compulsory part-time attendance; minimum exemption from compulsory attendance, and the categories of children so exempted; penalties for repeated contravention of compulsory attendance laws, and certain means of enforcing such penalties. The law, in making clear that compulsory education is free, should contain permissive clauses for providing free textbooks and other indispensable instruction material, and ancillary services such as free meals and clothing, transport, medical and dental care.

Conclusion

The recommendations of the commission were mainly directed to practical ends and were framed in such a way as to have the greatest chance of active implementation in the countries of the region.

From the deliberations in the commission, it was clear that the popular demand for education in all the countries of the region was rapidly increasing, and that those in authority were acutely conscious of the role of education in the economic development of their countries. All states were expanding their educational facilities and some were straining their resources to the limit. In most countries of the region, double shifts and crowded classes were common, schools were poorly equipped by almost any standard, while school buildings were often dilapidated or merely rented houses or even non-existent, classes being held in the open air. In fact the courageous spirit, so significant a feature of the educational scene in South Asia, is a challenge to the advanced countries of the world.

THE TRAINING AND STATUS OF TEACHERS

The aspect of compulsory education placed before the second commission—the training and status of teachers—must be central in any discussion of the general problem. It is a prerequisite to

the provision of more schools that there be teachers available for them; and no reform of the curriculum can succeed unless the teachers are capable of converting theories and ideals into classroom activities. There are, thus, both quantitative and qualitative demands made on teacher training in any scheme for compulsory education. This question leads naturally to the status of the teacher-in-service, since working conditions, security of office and prospects of advancement, economic and social standing, are more than factors in deciding the efficiency of individual teachers; they may determine how far the teaching profession can attract and retain the services of the people it so badly needs.

The commission discussed in turn the several aspects of the teacher in relation to compulsory education. The starting point as a rule was the experience of delegates and the prevailing conditions and needs in the region. More general debate led to the formulation of a set of recommendations (numbered 26 to 58 in the finally accepted text) which were felt to cover all points essential to a practical programme for implementing compulsory education.

Matching the Supply to the Demand

At first sight the main question in the South Asian region seemed to be how to get enough teachers for the rapidly expanding systems of primary schooling which would result in universal free and compulsory education for some countries and a longer period of compulsory schooling for others. The states varied in the extent to which they were able to provide school facilities for all the children, but despite these differences the commission found that almost every state in the region faced the same problem—a demand for teachers in excess of the present supply. The expansion of the school systems has been so rapid that many countries have been obliged to engage teachers with very low qualifications and teachers who are quickly trained, simply because they cannot halt the progress of education while waiting for adequately trained teachers to be produced in sufficient numbers. These unqualified and insufficiently trained teachers have grown to alarming numbers, and in-service training by various methods has become as essential as the more regular teacher-training programme. The training of new teachers must inevitably serve several purposes at the same time: provide staff for new classes, replace untrained teachers at the bottom of the scale, and at higher levels provide the trainers of teachers.

Planning for Teacher Training

The commission agreed that there was no ready-made solution to

the problem of teacher shortage. The only efficient way of dealing with the question was planning based upon a study of the various factors involved. Planning for compulsory education had been adopted by many states of the region and it was a procedure generally accepted by the conference. A number of elements in the compulsory education scheme had to be decided by the country concerned before the teacher-training aspect could be dealt with. No general rules could be laid down here, since each country had to evolve its own system and determine its rate of progress. But once the broad lines of a plan for compulsory education were fixed, the commission suggested that special attention be given to planning for the extension of teacher training. The goal was ultimately to produce enough teachers for the entire child population; this required analysis, in terms of the scheme for extending duration, into practical measures for training immediately as many teachers as possible and planned steps for increasing the number of teachers to keep pace with the growth of schooling.

Before turning to the question of how a plan for teacher training could be drawn up with realistic targets, the commission examined the types of training needed. The demand for teachers was urgent in each of the countries represented. The delegate of Pakistan, for instance, said that almost 50 per cent of his country's 88,000 teachers were quite untrained, and the development foreseen in the six-year plan required an additional 21,000 teachers each year. In Afghanistan the percentage of trained teachers was only 25. There were no general norms in the region for the length of the period of teacher training or for the academic level of students accepted for training, and it was clear that the commission could not recommend high standards at this point. Insistence on standards would delay unduly the carrying out of any scheme for compulsory education. The only practical course would be to prepare teachers in relation to the period of compulsory schooling intended. Many countries had already adopted the principle that teachers for a three-year primary school course needed less training than those for a six- or seven-year school; and without endorsing this view, commission members remarked that even with minimum standards of training, certain countries had been obliged to call for help on untrained members of the community, such as priests or mullahs and hardly literate villagers.

The commission agreed that four approaches or types of training should be recommended. First, teachers could be prepared quickly by emergency courses and shortened forms of the more usual courses, and then join the service. Such staff should be progressively retrained while in service until they reached a reasonable professional standard. Next, various longer courses—of two

years and up—could be adopted to give a thorough preparation to students whose general educational background was high enough. In view of the preponderance of rural areas in the region, it was felt that rural training colleges should be established with distinctive goals and methods—recruiting students from the immediate countryside for a training course directed towards teaching in a rural community. In the third place, an in-service training system could be organized systematically for teachers with inadequate qualifications or none at all. The consultant referred to United States and Indian experiments in this connexion. The United States had about 35,000 teachers graduating each year, as against the 100,000 needed. A supervisional form of training had been adopted in some areas; new teachers with an inadequate training were placed under a superviser who gave them guidance and 'on-the-job' instruction. A different method had been followed in one of the northern states of India: school classes were held for five days a week, and on the sixth the teachers were brought together for an in-service training programme.

The commission drew attention to the fourth type of teacher-training and the most important of all. To set up training colleges or courses, a staff is needed, and these teachers of teachers require special preparation. The delegate from Pakistan said that in his country a school for the training of the staff of training colleges had been started four years previously, and had proved most useful. This staff training college recruits university graduates and provides a two-year course, junior and advanced. In the latter, students specialize with a view to teaching the educational subjects and child psychology usually given in a training college.

In the earliest days of compulsory education, there might not be enough qualified recruits for the training colleges, and New Zealand had a special way of solving this. The delegate from New Zealand suggested that each country should develop one, two or more secondary schools to which selected primary school leavers might be sent. When the students completed the secondary course, some of them would go on to teacher training institutions while others could be sent overseas for training.

With regard to the training itself, the commission thought that training colleges should all be residential, because this offers the trainees the chance of full-time training in community work through practical co-operation, which is as important as the subject contents themselves.

At this point discussion returned to the framing of a plan for teacher training. When all possible methods for training teachers have been explored and exploited, the problem remains of arriving at a rational quantitative estimate of needs. Each country has to

decide to what age-group it first intends to apply compulsion—say the 6- to 12-year olds. Statistics are then required on this child population, both in and out of school, with some indication of the growth of the population and possible important shifts, e.g. the movement to towns. The assigning of an arbitrary number of pupils per teacher makes possible an estimate of the number of teachers required over the entire period of the scheme, and this is broken down into annual steps. The commission accepted that the first pupil-teacher ratio might be 40 or more, but felt that the ratio should be reduced as soon as possible. The estimate of the number of teachers who have to be produced each year has then to be adjusted to several factors: losses to existing staff through retirement, marriage, change of profession or death; wastage within the training colleges and courses through drop-outs and failures; and the relative needs of urban and rural areas. The figures thus arrived at have then to be converted into terms of the number of short courses, training colleges and in-service training facilities which will produce the required teaching staff. And in the last resort, the planned expansion of these establishments calls not only for financial and material provisions, but also for staff with the special training discussed earlier.

Administration and Financing of Teacher Training

The commission first discussed the question of how far training colleges should be independent of central control. Opinions were divided. It was noted that control of the affairs of a training college by central authorities is not peculiar to underdeveloped countries; certain well-developed states such as France prefer a centralized administration, and the results of teacher training are none the less excellent. Moreover, there are degrees of central control, and the choice does not have to be made between two extremes—complete autonomy for the college or rigid direction. The delegate from Pakistan felt that the state was obliged to exercise enough control over teacher-training institutions to safeguard certain national interests: standards have to be maintained and a check must be kept on the provision and expenditure of funds. But control over these administrative and financial matters need not prevent academic freedom. Teacher training colleges should be free in their teaching and should be encouraged to experiment. Considering the last point in the context of a region which lacks efficient staff, the consultant suggested that a government might set up a model teacher training school with the best available staff who could be trusted with complete freedom to try out new methods.

The commission then reviewed the admission of students to

teacher training institutions. Many pressing reasons have led countries to employ teachers with low qualifications, but if future teachers are to measure up to the responsibilities of compulsory education a fairly high standard will have to be required of students seeking admission to training courses. The countries of the region had widely differing types of courses, in both the purpose and duration of training, with corresponding variations in the initial qualifications expected of students: Thailand has seven different types of course; Pakistan has two—for non-graduates and graduates—each subdivided into courses of one year for juniors and two years for seniors; in Indonesia there are four types of regular course, as well as emergency training and correspondence courses for those unable to attend a training college. The commission was led to accept the situation of a graded programme of teacher training which would include various courses differing as to conditions of admission, duration of training and type of diploma awarded.

A certain minimum standard, however, should be fixed for admission, and the commission recommended that matriculation from a secondary school be aimed at. Since academic background should not be the only basis for selecting would-be teachers, the delegates stressed the need for paying attention to such qualities as a love for children, devotion to duty, drive and enthusiasm. The selection of students for a training college should therefore include personal interviews. A number of other factors should also be taken into account. The age of students must be such that when they have completed their training they will be mature enough to deal with schoolchildren. Health is important to a practising teacher, and health certificates might be demanded of entrants to the training college. Finally, there was a dearth of women teachers almost everywhere in the region, and since women are naturally better suited than men to teaching children of primary school age, every effort should be made to attract more girls to enter training colleges, if necessary by offering them special facilities.

The financing of teacher training was next discussed. However noble the teaching profession may be it is never lucrative. According to some delegates young people joined the profession only after exploring unsuccessfully all other forms of employment, and then left at the first opportunity. If prospective teachers were required to pay for their training, the profession would appear even less attractive and it would be difficult to find enough recruits. The commission in general took the view that teacher training should be financed by the state on a liberal scale. While undergoing training, students should receive free tuition, board and lodging, with extra allowances to meet necessary incidental

expenses. For the better among them, scholarships might also be provided so that they could pursue their studies at higher institutions at home or abroad. The commission noted also that proper financial provision was needed for in-service and refresher courses: the state had a responsibility for all measures designed to improve the quality of teaching. The Government should adequately finance the courses it organized and provide assistance to other agencies, such as teachers' associations, which might arrange courses. For teachers in rural areas, special residential courses were required as supplementary training. The delegate from Pakistan described the encouragement given in his country to such activities: teachers were maintained on full pay while taking a refresher course at the college so that they could support their families at home. They received in addition the allowances usually accorded to students.

The Teacher Training Curriculum

The commission agreed that the curriculum could not be fixed definitively by a group of officials in the Ministry of Education; nor should it be derived imitatively from foreign sources. The curriculum had to be conceived in terms of living persons—the staff and the students who would ultimately be teachers of children—and it had to be based on the conditions and needs of the training college and of the primary schools it served. The curriculum should therefore satisfy two demands: be alive and be experimental.

Those responsible for drawing up the curriculum needed to combine practical experience of the situation with a knowledge of broad educational policy. Practices varied in the states of the region, but the commission felt that no plans of study should be constructed without the advice and participation of two groups of people—representatives of the training colleges and of the primary schools. Some delegates added other groups; in France, for instance, teachers' associations and parents of student teachers are consulted. To ensure that the curriculum remained alive and changed to meet changing needs, the results of its application should be constantly evaluated and this required the setting up of some form of standing committee at a national level. While discussing 'the curriculum', the commission stressed that the variety of courses and the differing locations of training colleges precluded the adoption of a single curriculum, however carefully constructed, for all institutions.

In regard to the content of the curriculum, the commission first distinguished two groups of subjects: those designed to show future teachers how to teach and those more general subjects which

form the subject-matter of primary schooling. Delegates discussed how far the training college should go in these two directions. From the national experiences described the New Zealand example may be quoted. Here students are admitted to teacher training institutions after completing secondary school, i.e. they have a total of 12 years' education. The New Zealand view is that primary school teachers should have a thorough knowledge of the subjects they teach and a broad general background; students are insufficiently equipped when they arrive at the training college, and the curriculum therefore has to provide further general education as well as specialized professional training. The Indian delegate stressed that student teachers should not be crammed with theories but should learn to appreciate the nobility of human labour. Besides studying academic subjects in the college, they should use their hands to work in the fields and at handicrafts and should learn to live so that they might acquire the right attitude to the community. Only in this way could teachers leaving the institution take up their role of community leadership. The spiritual importance of the curriculum must not be overlooked. The New Zealand delegate took this point further by remarking that no particular 'subject' would supply the need. The success of a college depended rather on internal factors—the spirit of the school and the personal qualities of leadership in the principal and his staff. However, the college could give training in certain techniques, such as the social survey, which would prepare teachers to understand their communities. There should also be a programme of research into local traditions and customs, since in many parts of the region the traditional motives and social structure differ considerably from those obtaining in the West and the resulting ways of thought are not reflected in current psychology.

In order that practical training be given students, the commission believed that colleges should have practising primary schools attached, where progressive ideas of education could be tried without outside interference. In cases where this was impossible, the college should have access to the best primary schools in the neighbourhood. Students leaving the institution were not yet fully-fledged teachers, and it was recommended that they spend some time working under efficient teachers in larger schools before being sent out on their own to more remote areas.

On completing its survey of the national problem of teacher training, the commission discussed briefly certain international aspects. It was felt most desirable that those concerned with teacher training in the different countries should be enabled to visit others to study both the training colleges and the primary schools. In a programme of exchanges and fellowships, mature

persons with experience were to be preferred to student teachers, and it was suggested that they should go to countries with the same standard of development as their own, where similar conditions were found and similar problems solved along different lines.

The Status of Primary School Teachers

Members of the commission described the teachers' situation in their countries and various measures adopted to improve conditions of service.

Salary scales in general were considered to be low, but judgment on this point could be made only by comparing the teacher's salary with those prevailing in other occupations. A number of countries had raised the status of the teacher to that of a Government civil servant, with identical scales of pay. In some cases (Afghanistan, Indonesia and New Zealand) the teacher's salary was slightly higher than in comparable civil service posts, a measure which had the effect of making the profession attractive to recruits. Although the commission felt it desirable that teachers should receive at least the same salaries as other civil servants with similar qualifications, and embodied the principle in a recommendation, it was realized that such a goal could not be reached immediately in all countries. The number of primary school teachers was already vast, and even small salary increases made an extremely heavy charge on the state's resources.

The commission unanimously agreed that governments should introduce a single salary scale for all teachers, with varying steps to take account of qualifications, length of service and type of work. Women ought to receive the same pay as men for equal amounts of work. Upon marriage, women teachers cannot devote their full time to teaching without inconveniencing family life; a solution to this problem was suggested—a system of half-time employment on half pay.

Cases were described where the scale of pay for a teacher was comparable to that for other civil servants, but owing to financial stringency most teachers were kept at the bottom of the scale even after many years of service when their family responsibilities had correspondingly increased. The commission emphasized the need for mobility in salaries, and suggested that the authorities should make it possible for the majority of teachers to reach the middle of the scale within a reasonable time, and no external factors should hinder the best teachers from attaining the top of the scale.

Private education made a recognized contribution to compulsory schooling in the region. Where governments had a responsibility for supervising private schools, measures should be taken to

ensure that their teachers were properly qualified and that their pay and working conditions were maintained at Government standards.

In discussing some of the factors affecting teachers' conditions of service—appointment, promotion and security of tenure—the commission agreed that such matters must be kept clear of prejudice on grounds of sex, race, political or religious beliefs. Appointment and promotion should be made on merit alone. It appeared that throughout the region teachers once appointed were secure in their posts; unless grave misconduct were proved they could not be dismissed, and in some countries the method of taking proceedings against teachers was so difficult that supervisors were afraid to take the step. The commission felt that the role of teachers' associations might be strengthened, and recommended that they be consulted by the authorities whenever questions affecting the welfare of teachers arose.

Delegates then described various national allowances designed to make the living conditions of teachers more attractive. Summing up these experiences, the commission agreed that countries should supplement the teacher's salary by allowances for a family, for educating the children and for transport. The recognized rights of teachers should include paid leave in the event of sickness, maternity benefits for women teachers, and the provision of accommodation for posts in remote communities.

Arrangements for pensions and social security differed considerably in the countries represented in the commission. Pension schemes for teachers were usually state-controlled and based on a retirement age of 60 years, but teachers' contributions and benefits varied from country to country. The commission accepted the principle that some form of insurance was indispensable for teachers' well-being: this should include an adequate retirement pension and payments to the family in the case of illness or death. When schemes were being adopted by the state, every effort should be made to include private school teachers as well.

In concluding its survey of the broad issue of the training and status of teachers, the commission stressed the importance of professional teachers' associations. They could assist the authorities by advice and by active support for schemes of compulsory education; and where such bodies were lacking, the state should foster their establishment.

THE CURRICULUM OF THE COMPULSORY PRIMARY SCHOOL

The commission on curriculum realized from the outset that its work could not be isolated from that of the two other commissions,

on administration and on teacher training. In the course of discussion it found itself, for instance, advocating in the interests of the curriculum a greater freedom for local initiative, but this clearly involved wider questions of decentralization in educational administration. Again the commission decided fairly early in its proceedings that questions of curriculum could not long be dissociated from questions of method: what was taught, and how it was to be taught, were vitally interlinked. And this led straight to problems of teacher training.

It was therefore encouraging to the commission on curriculum to find that the predispositions of the members of the other two commissions were very much in line with its own and any harmonization that was necessary between its own draft recommendations and theirs was fairly easy to achieve. This indicates that although the three commissions were dealing with different subjects, and although the members of the conference came from a considerable number of different countries, there was something like a common sense of progressive educational purpose and a common educational philosophy at work in the region as a whole. With a consciousness of this broad community of purpose it was not difficult to consider problems of the curriculum in momentary isolation from problems of administration and teacher training.

The commission had at its disposal two papers prepared by the Secretariat of Unesco, one suggesting the consideration of certain themes and the other summing up the present position in each of the countries invited to participate in the conference. In the course of the meetings of the commission this information was supplemented by participants, and certain other topics arose for consideration which were not foreseen in the papers prepared in advance. For these reasons it is probably better, in giving an account of the work of the commission, to relate it to the recommendations ultimately formulated rather than strictly to the preliminary papers or the minutes of the separate meetings.

The first group of recommendations (59 to 63) adumbrates general principles that should be followed in devising a curriculum for a universal primary school. These are general in the sense that they no doubt apply to schools in other regions of the world as well as to those of South Asia and the Pacific, but if they are read carefully it will be found that they reflect the concern of educators in this region with problems that are felt by them at the present time to have peculiar insistence and force. There was anxious discussion as to what 'activity' meant as distinct from learning by rote, and as to the relation between activities in the school and the environment. This subject might, it is true, have been debated anywhere in the world, but it derived especial force in this confer-

ence in India from the issues raised by the basic education inspired by Mahatma Gandhi. Again many of the participating countries had but recently acquired political independence and the familiar discussion as to the role of the curriculum in forming citizens received peculiar force from this fact.

There were in addition three special problems which considerably exercised the commission. They were: the problem of choice of language for the purposes of the primary school—a problem that was vividly illustrated in the primary school system of Bombay itself, where delegates found schools for no less than seven different language groups; the problem of the interpretation of spiritual and moral values, which took sharp relief from the fact that different religions and different philosophies were represented at the conference, in all of which there was something vital to conserve whatever the changes of the present time; and lastly the problem of the relationship of the school to fundamental education, the need of which is felt in almost all the countries of the region.

In its final group of recommendations (69–76) the commission dealt with the way in which these principles might be put into effect in the countries of the region, given the acute difficulties of every kind with which educational expansion was attended. By what agencies could curricula be improved? How could new suggestions best be tested to see if they merited widespread adoption? What was the relationship between innovations in curriculum or teaching method and supplies of necessary material and equipment?

These then were the problems—general problems in a particular setting—that were identified for discussion by the curriculum commission and a further elucidation of them, as the commission saw them, may appropriately follow under their separate heads.

Basic Principles in the Curriculum

The Curriculum, the Child and Society. The majority of the countries represented at the conference were confronted with two difficulties that had to be dealt with simultaneously. On the one hand they had to re-shape a curriculum that had hitherto served the needs (more or less) of a minority of the population of school age, so that it became suitable for all children of school age. In the second place they had to find through the schools a cultural equivalent of the political emancipation they had in most cases but recently achieved, and of the social progress which was their aim. These tasks were not identical: there might, for instance, be a legacy of inert ideas coming either from a previous colonial stage of their

history or equally from their own strong traditions of learning. But in both tasks there was latent a possible conflict between what the child needed and what society needed. This was summarized by one delegate in the question: ought we to teach quadratic equations to the son of a fisherman who will himself be a fisherman?

That the conflict is however more apparent than real in a well devised curriculum became clear as the commission neared the stage of reducing the sense of the meeting to positive recommendations. The child himself is both an individual and a social being, and is still one child. However insistent and legitimate may be the demands upon the school system to play its part in shaping a new nation or in meeting the needs of a developing society, the emphasis in a good curriculum will still be on the needs of the child. But it will help him, in conditions that will vary both from place to place and from child to child, to be an effective contributing member of his society in all stages of his development.

Against this criterion it was clear that the members of the commission felt that they could show no complacency about the existing stage of affairs. They were equally clear that they did not want the mere addition of subjects to the present curriculum. If education had been too bookish, the remedy was not simply to add spinning or woodwork or metalwork. If the curriculum had failed to give children a sense of the society they lived in, the remedy was not just to add a course in civics. There was not only new matter to add, there was dead matter to take away. But, with that, the problem was not one of an addition or subtraction sum, and certainly not in terms of subjects. It was rather a problem of reconceiving the curriculum in terms appropriate to a new period in social and educational history.

As the delegate of India put it, the whole question of making schemes of compulsory education a success is essentially linked with the problem of improving the contents and quality of the curriculum. Unless sociologically and psychologically this curriculum is suitable from the point of view of the child and the society, our schemes of compulsory education will not succeed.... When the problem of curriculum reform, particularly at the elementary stage, is envisaged, it is regarded as a problem of adding so many new subjects to the curriculum, so much new matter to the existing subjects of the curriculum. There are three things which we should try to emphasize when, in our regions, we are drawing up a suitable curriculum. The first is the question of simplifying the curriculum. The temptation to make the curriculum either too ambitious or too crowded has got to be resisted. Secondly, there should be co-ordination of the various subjects and co-ordination of the content wherever it is possible. Thirdly, there must

be a certain elasticity which would give freedom to the teachers, headmasters and the inspecting officers to adapt the national or the regional curriculum to local needs, group needs, and sometimes to individual needs.

The Teacher and the Curriculum. The commission wrestled for some time with the problem of correcting undue centralization by giving freedom of initiative to teachers in matters of curriculum, and it recognized that in the period immediately ahead the difficulty of doing this would lie not merely in conservatism of administrative structure but in the fact that many teachers would be insufficiently trained and therefore not ready for such extra responsibility. Nevertheless there was a strong feeling that the time had come to move forward to greater freedom for the teacher. The representative of Ceylon, for instance, reported that in his country there was a scheme of studies constituting a uniform curriculum for some 7,000 schools which in reality were differently situated, and what they were now suggesting was to give freedom to the inspectors and the principals of schools to modify the scheme to suit local needs. The delegate of India reported that he had visited hundreds of schools in his own and other countries and had asked to see anything specially valuable that a school was doing, and he recalled the reply he had had in at least one country outside India: There is nothing to show; we are doing just what the other schools are doing; we have a curriculum which has got to be followed. The delegate from Australia, reporting on a situation that was easier from the point of view of training than most in the region, presented his colleagues with copies of a syllabus in use in Australia which gave a basis of suggestion to teachers, who were then free to modify it. He said that even so the position with untrained teachers would be difficult. The representative of France, coming from New Caledonia, suggested that what was needed was not so much freedom as such, as encouragement of the teacher to show initiative. And the consultant from the United States, speaking with conditions in Puerto Rico particularly in mind, said that if curricula were planned so as to permit of local adjustment by progressive steps that would be desirable; mistakes would be made, but faith must be shown in teachers to work out their own professional salvation.

New Methods of Teaching. The same difficulty revealed itself in relation to new and freer teaching methods. If even now a very large proportion of teachers had had a training that was too short and too stereotyped, the desired rapid expansion of primary school education would inevitably depend in a large measure on teachers trained in an emergency situation. In these circumstances did not

teachers need a kind of support that in other circumstances might seem cramping?

The representative of Indonesia said they had had to face the plain fact that they did not have enough well-trained teachers. Therefore they had had to begin by seeing that instruction followed prescribed textbooks, supplemented by guidance given both centrally and provincially. Later on, and after experiment, more freedom could be given, and it was his Government's intention, when they had more teachers who could handle pupils in the light of new methods, to do that; but they must give this freedom gradually. The representative of Pakistan agreed with the representative of India that there had been a little change in the direction of new methods in recent years, but it was time now to lay more emphasis on newer methods of teaching. Learning by rote was still dominant. Textbooks were certainly important but at least in the early stages of education there should be less reliance upon them than at present. And the emphasis on examinations in the primary school meant that the aptitudes which examinations could measure were stressed at the expense of other important things in school life. The time had come for a new orientation.

Examinations and the Curriculum. This last point, the relationship between examinations and freedom for the teacher, gave rise to much discussion; and not all of the members of the commission were of the same opinion. The chairman said bluntly: 'In Asia we are all examination-ridden, and whatever syllabus of study is framed, the fact remains that teachers have a tendency to forget all wise directions of social living, etc.; and to concentrate on examinations, so that our main purpose might be defeated if we have this public examination. On the other hand, let freedom be given to teachers. Let the principal say what this boy or girl is like and let the employer learn to rely more on the principal's certificate than on any other certificate.. Now that all the countries have got freedom, why not give a little freedom to schoolboys themselves?... I have a feeling that these innocents should be spared such an examination at the age of 14.'

The commission realized that the setting of an external examination at the end of the primary school took on a different aspect when the primary school was no longer a first school for a minority but had become universal. That was borne out by the delegate from Australia, who observed that in his own state of New South Wales they had had until a few years ago an examination at the end of the primary school set by the Department of Education, and that the effect of this had been to force boys and girls into an academic course whether their aptitudes were in this direction or not.

Selection of primary school pupils for secondary schools was now, except where teachers were untrained, made in terms of their place in class and their general ability or intelligence. There was general agreement in the commission that an external examination in the primary school for children who wished to pass on to a secondary school was easier to dispense with, in favour of other methods of selection, than an external examination for those pupils who were leaving, whether primary or secondary school. The representative of France explained that in the French school system it could not be said that teaching in the primary school was entirely channelled towards passing an examination. The examination at the end of primary school was in no way compulsory. But it had not proved practicable to do away entirely with external examinations, or mixed external-internal examinations. There had been movements for reform which had protested against the incidence of examinations, but to do away with them in the school system as a whole would entail changing the whole method of recruitment into administrative employment. In India, too, it was said that there was a very real pressure for a certificate not issued on the sole authority of a headmaster for those who wished to go from the primary school into the junior services or teacher training. The delegate of Ceylon on the other hand felt that it should be for employers, whether administrative or industrial, to make their own tests as to whether boys or girls were suitable for the employment they offered, and not for education authorities to submit whole local school populations to examinations of this kind.

Attention was directed by the commission not only to external examinations conducted at the end of the primary school but to the internal examinations set each year by teachers themselves. This invited particularly severe strictures from the delegate of Pakistan, who was of the opinion that it was easier to reduce these internal examinations in importance than it was to do away with a leaving examination. Annual internal examinations in the primary school are of course closely connected with the practice—to be condemned on both financial and educational grounds—of excessive retardation of pupils so that they have to take the same class or grade a second year.

On the main subject the commission reached a measure of agreement and recommended that external examinations in the primary school, if not abolished entirely, should at least be on an optional basis.

Activity Methods and Practical Work. Probably the most important subject discussed by the commission was that of revitalizing the schools of the region by making the curriculum and the methods of

teaching more active. This involved a discussion of what was really meant by the often invoked term 'activity'; of what was meant equally by the relating of teaching to 'life situations'; of the place of practical work in the curriculum of the school; and finally of the relevance of these conceptions to the state of education and of social development in the countries of South Asia and the Pacific at the present time.

In the first place there was agreement among all members of the commission that a serious effort must be made in schools throughout the region to divest the curriculum of the inert matter which deadens school for child and teacher alike. There was also a strong interest expressed in the increasing use of the 'project' method as one means to this end, though the commission did not feel that it wished necessarily to give universal or unqualified support to this method of teaching as distinct from the 'subject' method. Equally, although there was a very strong feeling that much greater emphasis should be given to craft work in the primary schools the commission did not assume that the word 'activity' should connote such work alone: a child learning a traditional subject, if teaching were good, would of course also be 'active'. There was, however, a certain difference of emphasis as to the degree to which verbal teaching should be superseded in the primary school.

The commission was greatly interested in what it heard of the conception of the basic school inspired by Mahatma Gandhi, with its emphasis on education through work rather than through words. It was reported from countries other than India (for instance, Thailand) that in recent years there had been increased emphasis on learning by doing. On the other hand some delegates indicated a certain reserve on these points, lest the very important link in the education of human beings between language skill and personal and social effectiveness be overlooked. The delegate of Australia, for instance, though reporting that the primary school curriculum in recent years had become less bookish in his country, yet maintained that as you move up the intellectual scale the verbal medium becomes the supreme medium of education. The commission also heard with interest the principle of basic education which attempted to meet financial difficulty by planning for children to make articles that could be sold, and so contribute to financing the school. But the weight of opinion in the commission was that the test of the introduction of a given craft in school should be an educational one. As the delegate of Thailand put it, the aim should be to foster the creative urges in the child, and in craft work the main concern should be with quality and precision of work, not the production of articles for the economy. The com-

mission agreed, however, that there was everything to be said for the taking up of craft work that was related to the pursuits of the community in which the school found itself. That was one important way of making a link between the child and his environment, between the school and the community, and of giving meaning to the phrase 'life experiences'.

It was precisely because this side of education seemed to members of the commission to have been unduly neglected in their schools that they placed so much emphasis upon it. In discussing the role of the schools in fostering national traditions the commission was careful to see the best in their national heritage and insisted that school should help young people to assess their social traditions critically; and here they had in mind, among other things, the disrespect for manual work which a number of delegates maintained to be too common in their countries and which could indeed be increased by a wrongly directed education.

While wishing to see the primary school curriculum decisively reoriented in this direction, the commission was careful to guard against an unbalanced vocationalism. It pointed out that while one purpose of education was to teach the child skills, and these might with advantage be related to the immediate environment and be directly useful, nevertheless education had two other purposes which should never be neglected: to help the child to form his first general ideas about the world and to appreciate it through the exercise of his imaginative powers. The stress might be on any one of these three purposes, according to the age and aptitudes and interests of different children but a sound education would neglect none of them; indeed it would not think of them as entirely separate, but through teaching for any one of these ends would seek to reinforce the others (recommendations 59 to 63).

Special Problems

Teaching in the Mother Tongue. The commission did not go into questions of detail under this head but did discuss the administrative difficulties in carrying out an educational principle that it felt to be desirable. The principle was that children should have their first schooling in the language they spoke at home, for there could be no doubt that they would learn most easily, quickly and effectively through this medium. On the other hand to insist on this everywhere would be perfectionism. The representative of France, for instance, pointed out that in New Caledonia in the schools for Indonesians and Melanesians the teaching had to be in French because there was a separate dialect for almost every valley. On the other hand the commission, while recognizing the force of such

arguments in very many countries of the region, did not wish to emphasize exceptions to the rule so much that nothing was seriously done about extending the application of the rule; and the phrasing of its recommendation reflects this balance in its thinking (recommendation 64).

Spiritual and Moral Values. The chairman invited members of the commission to indicate whether a place was given to religious instruction in their school systems, and if so what place. The responses showed that the position varied greatly from country to country, ranging from the practice of Laos and Indonesia in giving no religious teaching in schools and leaving such matters to parents, through the practice of Thailand and Pakistan in giving teaching in the religion prevalent in the country, to the practice of mission schools in certain non-self-governing territories which gave instruction in a religion new to the majority of the inhabitants. Following this survey it was felt wise in any recommendation to note that this question would be decided by each country in the light of its special needs and circumstances. But it seemed good to the commission to make a recommendation on two cognate points.

The fact that there were so many views about religion and adherents of different religions raised the question whether it was not the duty of schools to teach tolerance of different points of view. This was agreed, and indeed clarified. What was right was that there should be tolerance for persons; not necessarily an agreement that all religions or all points of view about religion were equally good, but the recognition that other people have as much right to their views as we have to our own and deserve our tolerance and respect.

In the second place it was felt by the commision that a school should treat as of the highest importance what might be called more broadly spiritual and moral values. In some countries it might be considered that these values were best inculcated through teaching within a religious system, but in other countries which left religious teaching as such to the parents or religious bodies there would be equal assent to the principle as stated in these broader terms (recommendation 65).

The Primary School and Fundamental Education. The commission was aware of the work conducted under different names in different countries but increasingly known as 'fundamental education'. There was general agreement that the general attack on ignorance in a community had been most successful where the parents had worked with the teachers, and the school with the authorities for

health and agriculture or any other agency concerned with the improvement of the community. Such co-operation was necessary in the interests of the school and the revitalization of its curriculum. It strengthened the position of the schoolmaster or schoolmistress in the community, gave parents and children a common bond in education, showed parents more clearly than anything else could the significance of school for their children and intimated to the children the relationship between education and life. Particularly in the villages, good teaching would link what was taught under the curriculum with all sorts of problems of daily life, and if in addition the school was actively associated with fundamental education campaigns it would feel itself, and be felt, central to village life (recommendation 67).

Curriculum Reform in Practice

Need for Experiment. It is not possible to be dogmatic in detail about the kind of curriculum that should be laid down for the compulsory primary school in the transitional years during which it is being established. What the commission felt to be especially necessary was careful and varied experiment in accordance with the principles adumbrated above. There was no single place from which initiative should come: on the contrary, educational progress would be the richer if it could come from many sources, from the teacher training colleges, from teachers in school, from educational authorities both central and local, and from local communities.

The Role of Training Colleges. One of the key places was clearly the teacher-training institution. If future teachers were not given inspiration there to move forward as the age required, it would be difficult for them to find it later on. The teacher-training institutions should encourage the idea in the future teacher that he had an initiating part to play in shaping the curriculum of the schools of his country. They should see especially that their own teaching and their teaching of teaching methods were in accordance with the very best modern practice. They should not do this only in theory, but should demonstrate improved curricula and improved methods of teaching in demonstration centres. They should themselves, through their own staff and through teachers in training, foster research and experimentation in curriculum problems.

The Teacher and the Community. In the second place members of the teaching profession should be encouraged to study questions of curriculum and method not only in committees within the

profession but wherever appropriate in co-operation with other field workers or with parents and members of the public. Such work should range from discussion of the principles and practice of teaching certain subjects to detailed and practical matters such as the provision without cost to the school of materials and equipment for school use. Wherever an agency working in the community had educational aims it should be associated with the school and consideration should be given to reflecting this association in school teaching and activities. In these ways a genuine movement might be generated, firmly based in public support, for the extension of education and for its improvement. There should be a wealth of local experiments, small and big.

Experiment and Research. At a more systematic level governments should encourage the selection of certain schools and colleges (as the representative of India reported had been done recently with 10 schools in the Punjab) for planned experimentation with the curriculum, free of the normal administrative restrictions. And institutions for educational research should study problems of curriculum improvement both from the point of view of theory and from the point of view of the evidence yielded by such experiments.

Exchange of Information and of Textbooks. It was necessary, however, wherever an experiment in curriculum or in teaching methods had proved interesting and fruitful, that an account of the experiment and an evaluation of it should be widely available. Really first-rate publications, whether issued by ministries or otherwise, could be of the greatest help to the individual teacher, and everything should be done to see that these were available for this purpose. Internationally, the role of the Education Clearing House in Unesco was obviously of cardinal importance. One particular area in which not merely the exchange of information but the actual exchange of visible specimens was important was that of textbooks, for there was at present a great disparity, both educationally and technically, between the best and the worst textbooks used in the schools of different countries. Exhibitions of both textbooks and children's books in general should be encouraged and the exhibits should be not merely looked at but studied professionally.

Temporary Expedients. Movements and measures such as these could do a great deal towards making compulsory education a success in spite of the immense financial difficulties which accompanied expansion. But the commission did not hesitate to enter the very difficult ground of certain compromises with principle that might be necessary in order to get things going at all where difficulties

seemed almost insuperable. It did not accept every proposal that was mooted, but there was general sympathy for a more cautious temporary expedient, the provision of reasonable part-time education where whole-time education could not be provided. There was a practical balance to be struck in the years immediately ahead between the ideal primary education for the individual and the social ideal of getting every child into school at the earliest possible date. For this purpose, while there was a limit beyond which concessions should not go, every practicable device should be explored. The length of the school day might need to be adjusted, it might be found that children could be grouped in differently sized groups for different aspects of their work, it might be found possible to use school buildings for a longer period of time, or a 'shift-sytem' might be employed in suitable districts.

The Length of School Life. From the point of view of the curriculum and its possibilities and effectiveness the crucial thing to know is of course the length of the period of full-time schooling. The curriculum commission was not prepared to set its sights lower than a period of seven years of compulsory primary schooling though it was prepared to agree, with the administrative commission, to a formulation which envisaged a shorter period where lack of resources made this imperative. But that shorter period must be long enough to ensure a permanent functional literacy.

Conclusion

In presenting its final recommendations the commission on curriculum realized that these were general recommendations. It had been considering the educational problems of a number of countries whose existing provisions, traditions and needs were not comparable in detail. But it had been encouraged to find the marked degree to which its members spoke a common language. Throughout South Asia there was a realization that the extension of education was one of the indispensable keys to the future. There was a sense that with the achievement of political independence and with the drive towards technical advance a new moment had arrived. That moment demanded a thorough re-thinking of what was taught in the schools, and of what ought to be taught now that the schools were in process of being made open to every child. The problem was what to retain from the past and what to discard as inert; how to reinforce the sense of tradition while preserving a critical-mindedness favouring improvement, and fostering a sense of the nation, and at the same time an international tolerance and understanding appropriate to the international community of

nations; lastly, how to satisfy a widely felt desire for a great movement in education with resources that were desperately limited. The commission felt that the principles by which the curriculum of the universal primary school should be framed were not too difficult to establish, but that success in doing this in practice would depend on the fullest and most intelligent experimentation in the next few years, and on the great skill and energy of administrators and teachers in carrying these principles into effect.

INTERNATIONAL CO-OPERATION AND ASSISTANCE

In the course of the conference a plenary meeting was held to consider the document (see Appendix C) prepared by the Unesco Secretariat on international assistance in the field of compulsory education. Representatives from the International Labour Organisation and the Food and Agriculture Organization as well as Unesco explained in some detail the role of their agencies. The U.S.A. delegate described the official and private American programmes which concerned the region; and the Australian delegate dealt with the part that could be played by the Colombo Plan and the South Pacific Commission.

The conference then appointed a committee to draw up recommendations for international action which might be considered and voted upon at the same time as the reports from the three commissions. The recommendations numbered 77 to 90 in the the final text (see Appendix A) came from this committee, and are sufficiently detailed to need little comment. Each of the commissions found during its discussion that international action could make a distinct contribution to the efforts of the separate nations to solve the problems that beset compulsory education. That this was true for each theme discussed—administration and finance, teacher training and curriculum—demonstrated the need for an all-round and co-ordinated campaign in which the states, regional organizations and specialized international agencies should take part.

CHAPTER FOUR

CONCLUSION

The foregoing pages have attempted to review the problems of compulsory education in the countries of South Asia and the Pacific, to give the essential facts about the educational situation as far as they are available, and to present a summary of the ideas expressed at the Bombay conference by experienced educators belonging to that region. The conference having been held, what are the next steps that need to be taken and what can be done to put into execution its recommendations?

The first and rather obvious step is to disseminate the recommendations of the conference, the ideas that were expressed at the conference and information about the present situation in the region. It is to be hoped that governments will attempt to broadcast the recommendations to national, provincial and local authorities; to teacher training institutions and teachers' organizations; and finally to the general public. Only in this way can a general movement in favour of the education of all children be generated. While it is true that more and more parents are clamouring for places in schools for their children, a fairly large proportion of the general population is still not conscious enough of the need for education, and very few are aware of the full implications of a scheme of universal compulsory education.

In the second place, there is a need for the general realization and mastery by educational authorities of the more technical aspects of the problem of free and compulsory education. These range from administrative and financial procedures to the problems of curriculum, textbooks and methods of teaching. The list of specific questions could be lengthened indefinitely: how to establish a school census; how to control attendance effectively; how to inspect the schools; what types of school buildings to adopt for local climatic conditions; how to utilize local building materials economically; how to provide funds for compulsory education; how to eliminate wastage in educational expenditure and utilize funds to the best advantage; how to plan educational expansion; how to adapt curricula to the needs of children and environment; how to produce textbooks and reading materials that are at once attractive and educationally sound; how to use more active

methods in teaching; in fine, how to subject all these problems to research and experimentation. Such are a few of the many things that need to be learnt and mastered. This would point to the need for establishing extensive training programmes not only for teachers but also for supervisors and inspectors, for all levels of educational administrators, and for advanced students and research workers in all fields of education and educational psychology. The need for various types of teacher training institutions is generally recognized; but it is just as necessary to set up more advanced schools and faculties which will give sound long-term training to professors of training colleges, to educational administrators and to research workers. Such a programme should be supplemented by intensive short-term courses, workshops and seminars on specific topics, for dealing with particular aspects of compulsory primary education. All in all, a great deal needs to be done in the next 10 years to provide South Asia and the Pacific with well-trained educators who will take full charge of the educational enterprise and lead it competently.

While courses, seminars and workshops will mainly be held on a local or national basis, they can also be given a regional or international complexion with some profit. Unesco will do its best to assist such training programmes at all levels and it is to be hoped that Member States will increasingly come forward with plans for this type of project.

In the third place, more needs to be done in the field of mutual assistance among the states of the region themselves. Training facilities in one state may be put at the disposal of students and educators in the other; expert educators may be lent, fellowships granted, and information exchanged. At the time of writing, one state in the region has proposed to hold a seminar in its territory for 20 South Asian educators to master the technique of the simultaneous teaching of several classes in the rural schools by one teacher. The opportunity for similar activities is immense. For some of the states of South Asia the Colombo Plan organization might be in a position to offer educational assistance.

Finally, if what has been said about the international character of the problem of free and compulsory education is true, more international assistance should be forthcoming in this field. Such assistance might come from private foundations for the purposes of establishing training programmes, research centres, pilot projects, etc. Or it may come from individual states outside the region to individual states in the region on a bilateral basis. Or it may come from the international organizations making part of the United Nations system. The assistance can be technical, but a very strong case can be made also for financial assistance—directed not towards

the running expenses of compulsory school systems, but towards capital expenditure on the building and equipment of schools as well as expenditure on training programmes. Such expenditure can be justified on the grounds that long-term assistance offered for economic development, education and social welfare is a preventive measure saving humanity a great deal of future unrest; and this may in the long run prove to be the only method for helping civilization out of the present impasse.

RECOMMENDATIONS OF THE CONFERENCE

The Regional Conference on Free and Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific, convened at Bombay by the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization, meeting in plenary session on Monday, 22 December 1952;

Considering that Article 26 of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights recognizes the right of every person to education and stipulates that education shall be free, at least in its elementary and fundamental stages and that elementary education shall be compulsory;

Considering that Recommendation No. 32 adopted by the XIVth International Conference on Public Education, held at Geneva on 12–21 July 1951, lays down the general principles of free and compulsory education and its prolongation;

Considering that resolution 1.232 adopted by the General Conference of Unesco at its Sixth Session, held in Paris in 1951, authorized the Director-General of Unesco to convene a Regional Conference on Free and Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific;

Considering that more than half the children in the world are without schooling, and that in the region of South Asia and the Pacific alone an estimated fifty-five million out of a total of ninety-five million children of school age are deprived of school facilities of any sort;

And considering that this urgent problem requires for its solution the mobilizing of the resources of the States and communities inside and outside the region and the enlisting of the assistance of international organizations;

Adopts the following recommendations addressed to the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization and to Member States and Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories in the region:

ADMINISTRATION, FINANCE AND LEGISLATION

Planning

1. The regional conference notes with satisfaction that many of the countries within the region have under consideration plans

of compulsory education and recommends that, where comprehensive, detailed and realistic plans have not been prepared, they be formulated as early as possible.

2. While the pattern for the preparation of plans of compulsory education must be determined according to the needs of each country, the principles of a partnership in planning between the central government and the state and local authorities should be fully recognized:
   (a) Where systems of local administration apply, local education committees assisted by trained administrative personnel should be invited to prepare, in a form laid down by the central administration, local plans to be embodied in the national plan;
   (b) Where no system of local administration applies, local participation in the preparation of plans should nevertheless be encouraged, either by the creation of ad hoc education committees or by other suitable means.
3. Plans should include not only long-term provisions for the ultimate achievement of full compulsory education, but also practical short-term devices for ensuring that a start is made here and now according to the varying conditions in each country. Priorities might include:
   (a) The immediate declaration of compulsory education in any area where school accommodation is available but with the proviso that this should not be detrimental to development in backward areas;
   (b) Where immediate provision for the full age range is not possible, the provision of compulsory schooling for a shorter age range with progressive and systematic extension until full compulsory attendance is achieved;
   (c) The declaration of compulsory education in areas where the response to facilities for voluntary school attendance has been encouraging;
   (d) The selection of certain 'backward areas' for pilot projects;
   (e) The provision of part-time education as a temporary expedient where full-time schooling is not yet practicable.
4. The preparation of compulsory education plans should be preceded by consultation between the Ministers and Chief Executive Officers responsible for educational, economic, social and child labour affairs: standing interdepartmental committees should be established both as means of making all government departments aware of their natural responsibilities and of emphasizing the inescapable fact that effective advance towards full and compulsory education is only possible when accompanied by economic and social progress, and conversely,

economic and social progress is dependent on the expansion of compulsory education.

5. Compulsory education plans should be kept under review so that, in the light of changing circumstances, they may be adjusted and revised; the creation of small compulsory education research units within Ministries of Education is recommended, together with periodic publicizing of achievement both throughout the country and in particularly successful areas.

Administration

6. No plan of compulsory education can be wisely formulated or vigorously applied unless the educational administration conforms to the highest standards: countries embarking on plans of compulsory education should, therefore, review their administrative arrangements to ensure that these are adequate both in structure and personnel to cope with the problems involved.
7. As the effective establishment of compulsory education must take time, it is necessary to ensure for it the general support of the nation, so that continuity of policy may be maintained over a long period. To this end, according to the circumstances of each country, consideration should be given to the formation of continuing advisory bodies such as representative national, State or provincial Councils of Education, whose main function would be the periodic review and support of compulsory education achievement.
8. While decisions as to the merits of local as well as central administration must depend on the circumstances of each country, the delegation of a share of administrative responsibility to local areas might have the advantages both of freeing the central administration for the major task of policy making and supervising the general plan of compulsory education, and of facilitating educational provision appropriate to special local needs.
9. All arrangements for the administration of compulsory education should include effective machinery for the accurate identification of children who should be in school, and for enforcing their attendance when schools are established. Measures such as the following should be considered:
   (a) Local censuses of children of school age, preferably associated with birth registration systems, should be taken at regular intervals and kept up to date;
   (b) Although it may sometimes be desirable to include some school attendance functions among the duties of teachers, consideration should be given to the appointment of School Attendance Officers whose duties should include

keeping census records, maintaining a liaison of goodwill between school and home, investigating cases of non-attendance and their causes, obtaining evidence of need in cases where material inducements to school attendance are necessary, investigating school transport problems and in the last resort, instituting legal processes;

(c) Where School Attendance Officers are appointed, appropriate training courses should be provided for them.

10. School meals might be provided as a material inducement to attendance, as a means of improving the health of the children, of enhancing the corporate life of the school. Since free facilities of this kind for all children may place an undue strain on educational budgets at a time when money is needed for the essential fabric of education, consideration should be given to providing these economically through local co-operative arrangements and by requiring parents to contribute to the cost according to their means. Even where school meals cannot be provided, the supervision of children's meal-time arrangements can do much to improve nutrition standards.

11. Since adequate textbooks and other instructional materials are vital to sound education they should be provided free of charge to pupils.

12. A child should not be expected to engage in employment during the period of school age. But this principle awaits full application while it is important that there should be close and continuous liaison between educational and labour authorities both within the countries of the region and at the international level. Immediate consideration should be given to practical measures such as the following:

(a) Children should not be permitted to take up full-time employment before they have reached the compulsory school leaving age or have completed the prescribed course;

(b) School programmes should be sufficiently flexible so that unavoidable part-time employment does not interfere with schooling;

(c) School holidays, especially in rural areas, should be flexible so that they may be adjusted to meet local and seasonal needs.

13. There is considerable evidence that wastage and retardation within existing schools not only severely reduce the already limited period of school life, but also involve wasteful deployment of educational resources. Educational administrators are urged, therefore, to promote research into the causes of wastage and retardation and to consider practical steps

whereby this serious impediment to progress towards compulsory education may be removed.

Provision of Compulsory Schooling

14. The minimum period for compulsory education should be not less than 7 years with the prospect of future prolongation. Initially, however, a shorter period which will ensure permanent functional literacy may need to be adopted owing to the limited resources available.
15. In addition to the priorities indicated in Recommendation No. 3 (Planning), special consideration will need to be given to the following:
    (a) The extension of incomplete schools to include the full age range and remove one of the causes of wastage;
    (b) The provision of educational facilities for girls comparable with those for boys;
    (c) Special provision of schools in areas where new economic and social developments are taking place, as for instance where nomadic peoples are in the process of settling, where land settlement projects are being promoted, or where industrial projects are under way.
16. Some time must elapse before compulsory schooling in some countries is understood as covering a period in a primary school followed by appropriate secondary education. As interim steps, the following types of school are suggested:
    (a) For populous urban areas, primary schools providing instruction in the first few years and, in latter years, courses in a type of intermediate or secondary school related to the pupil's future vocation;
    (b) For rural and thinly populated areas, all-age primary schools with facilities for vocational interests or emphasis in the last few years.
17. In sparsely populated areas, the establishment and continuance of single-teacher schools will be unavoidable. Special attention should therefore be given to improving the standards and techniques of instruction in such schools. In particular, arrangements should be developed between Member States to enable selected teachers and members of the staffs of training colleges to visit a country in the region which has had significant experience, in order to study the special techniques of teaching multiple classes.
18. Ministries of Education should promote sound yet economical school building, by encouraging architects, in consultation with teachers, to consider the types of school building suitable

to national conditions, by conducting building research, by issuing the results to State and local authorities, and by encouraging adaptation to local needs. The increased use of open-air schools should also be considered.

19. While the provision of compulsory schooling is the responsibility of the nation, whenever non-publicly conducted schools can be used to supplement public provision for compulsory education, consideration might be given to the use of those resources, subject to such safeguards as the following:
    (a) Compliance with Ministry of Education Regulations concerning standards;
    (b) Regular inspection;
    (c) Exemption of children from denominational religious teaching if their parents so request.

    Under these conditions, consideration should be given to the eligibility of such schools for assistance from public funds.

Finance

20. Although it may not be possible to estimate accurately the cost of any long-term plan of compulsory education, all plans should be accompanied by the best available estimate, especially for the first few years. This is important, not only for proper programming and the allocation of priorities, but also in order to achieve the following objects:
    (a) Bringing to the notice of all concerned the need for continuous and increasing provision in the proportion of the budget allocated to education;
    (b) Drawing attention to the fact that educational advance and economic development must go hand in hand.
21. As the greatest obstacle to the establishment of compulsory education is that of finance, every available source of continuous and expanding revenue should be used. Sources of finance will depend upon economic circumstances, fiscal practices and the system of educational administration in each country, but consideration should be given to possibilities such as the following:
    (a) It is hoped that governments within the region will accept the principle that expenditure on compulsory education should rank as a first charge on budgets;
    (b) Multiple sources of revenue, including national, provincial or State taxes, local rates or taxes, and possibly special taxation should be considered as a means of ensuring both continuity and expansion in educational funds;
    (c) It is hoped that, in times of financial recession,

governments will regard expenditure on compulsory education as one of the last items for retrenchment.

22. Every effort should be made to augment national or State funds by funds from local revenue, to meet the cost of financing compulsory education. Means such as the following might be considered:
   (a) Provision for the levy of local rates or taxes to supplement the financing of local plans;
   (b) The encouragement of local initiative in the raising of additional revenue for compulsory education by devices such as a grants system under which:
      (i) Central grants would vary with the ability of the locality to provide funds;
      (ii) A pro rata increase of the central grant would follow an increase in expenditure from local sources;
   (c) The encouragement (subject to safeguards ensuring their continued use for educational purposes) of the provision of funds by local organizations and individuals;
   (d) The encouragement, particularly for financing special services, of other voluntary assistance as, for example, the system of the school chest.

23. As the heavy capital cost of school building and equipment must inevitably constitute a formidable obstacle to the provision of compulsory education, early consideration should be given to means such as the following for creating capital and spreading the burden over a period of years:
   (a) The allocation of a proportion of National Capital Development Funds for educational purposes;
   (b) The creation of Public Educational Capital Loan Boards;
   (c) The legal diversion to educational use of endowments and trust funds whose original purposes have ceased to apply.

Legislation

24. It is recommended that, wherever circumstances permit, provision for free and compulsory education should be made in general terms in the Constitution of the State.

25. Compulsory education legislation should be so drawn up as to afford the minimum opportunity for escaping its provisions. Compulsory education legislation should include clauses on the following topics as a minimum:
   (a) The age limits of compulsory full-time attendance;
   (b) The age limits of compulsory part-time attendance;
   (c) The fact that compulsory education should be free;

(d) Exemption from compulsory attendance, and the categories of children so exempted;
(e) Penalties accruing for repeated contravention of compulsory attendance laws;
(f) Permissive clauses for the provision at public expense of such facilities as free transport, free textbooks, free meals and clothing, free medical and dental care etc.

TRAINING AND STATUS OF TEACHERS

Teacher Training

26. Each state which accepts the full responsibility for the planning and implementation of free and compulsory primary education is invited to draw up a plan of teacher training which would form an integral part of the general plan.
27. In order to overcome the shortage of trained staff, and to provide an adequate supply of teachers, such a plan should include practical provisions for immediate operation and other provisions for later progressive development. In addition, it should provide for the gradual reduction of inadequately trained teachers in the shortest time possible.
28. The number of teachers to be trained can be considered from two points of view:
    (a) The number of teachers needed in order to extend educational facilities to the whole country, or
    (b) The number of teachers needed at each stage in the gradual development of the scheme.
29. The decision as to the number of teachers to be trained at any one time should take into account the following factors:
    (a) The length of compulsory education actually enforced, and any further lengthening of the period under consideration;
    (b) The rate of growth of the population and the probable drift to the towns;
    (c) The ratio of children per teacher, a figure which should be gradually reduced to an educationally sound level;
    (d) The annual estimated loss of teaching staff due to retirement, death, resignations, marriage etc.
30. The foregoing plans based on statistical study should make possible a rational estimate of:
    (a) The number of teachers, training colleges, and special training courses required;
    (b) The number and kind of staff required to train teachers.
31. In countries in which the administration is highly centralized, it is important to ensure that the control exercised by the

central authorities shall allow a considerable independence and latitude to the directors of teachers' training colleges and to any institutions for training teachers.

32. While it is desirable that primary teachers should receive increasingly complete training, it may be necessary at first to arrange a number of graded schemes which will differ as to:
    (a) Conditions of admission;
    (b) The period and type of teacher training course, and
    (c) The diplomas awarded by such institutions.
33. In view of the importance of rural life for most countries represented at this Conference, special attention should be given to the setting up of rural teachers' training colleges, which should recruit their students from the immediate countryside.
34. Intellectual aptitude and standards of attainment must not be allowed to become the sole factors governing the admission of teachers trainees. The students' potential devotion to duty, love of children, and human and dynamic qualities should be given most careful consideration.
35. Every effort should be made, and special facilities provided, to encourage women to enter primary teachers' training institutions.
36. Special provisions might be considered in order to allow women teachers who are also mothers of families to carry out their duties both in the school and in the home.
37. The following measures are examples of means that may be employed to encourage the recruitment of teacher trainees:
    (a) Free tuition at training colleges;
    (b) Free board and lodging;
    (c) Payment of adequate student allowances;
    (d) Provision of scholarships to permit advanced training either at home or abroad.

    Such assistance should not prevent student teachers, especially in rural teacher training colleges, from occasionally being drawn upon for remunerative activities connected with the school's practical activities, such as gardening and food growing.
38. The age of admission to the various teacher training institutions should be such as to ensure that the prospective teachers are sufficiently mature to be effective with their pupils. The completion of secondary education as a prerequisite to admission into teacher training institutions should be accepted as a desirable standard. It may be necessary in certain countries, however, provisionally to accept a lower standard of admission. In such cases, the training course should be devised in a form which will ensure a high degree of general and professional education.

39. The study plan and curriculum of each type of teacher training institution should be drawn up in the light of:
    (a) The length of the training period in each institution;
    (b) The candidate's general knowledge and standard of attainment at the time of admission;
    (c) The nature of the institution (rural teachers' training college, training college for teachers of handicapped children etc.).
40. Although the present tendency is to require candidates to have a fairly high standard of education before commencing training, it would appear that a balance should be struck between the time devoted to general education, including manual work such as agriculture and handicrafts, and the time set aside for teaching educational methods and for inculcating in the future teacher social and human ideals and the principles of living in community.
41. It is desirable, however, that there should be one or more teachers' training colleges of a more highly developed type in the countries where the general level of teacher training is not high. The curriculum of these colleges would comprise a deeper study of child psychology and general psychology and of the methods of teaching used in the various subjects.
42. The curricula of every type of institution which trains primary school teachers should make adequate provision for practical teaching by the students in primary schools attached to teachers' training colleges or in the best primary schools in the neighbourhood.
43. The curricula of teacher training institutions should include training in social survey methods and in community leadership, so as to enable future teachers to adapt their teaching to the immediate environment of the school and to play a useful role in the life of the community.
44. Representatives of teachers from teachers' training colleges and primary schools should be associated with the authorities responsible for drawing up, evaluating and revising curricula and syllabuses for the teachers' training centres.
45. Any improvement in the training of primary school teachers depends in the first place on the quality of the teachers responsible for giving the training The utmost attention should therefore be paid by the education authorities to the qualifications and personality of these teachers. Visits and exchanges of professors of teachers' training colleges should be arranged, not only between countries at widely differing stages of development, but also between countries which have certain difficulties in common.

46. The efficiency of teacher training colleges depends greatly on adequate teaching equipment and a good library well supplied with educational journals, textbooks and reference works.
47. The system of boarding-in is particularly to be recommended in the case of all teachers' training colleges, since it enables the teacher to develop a community spirit and to devote himself to the practical activities which constitute the essence of the education he is required to give.
48. In-service training should be encouraged, especially for teachers who have received only emergency or incomplete training. Such supplementary courses may also help to improve the teachers' qualifications and increase their chances of promotion. If supplementary courses are not organized by the education authorities, financial assistance should be given to teachers' associations or other agencies to do so. Teachers attending such courses should receive adequate financial assistance. Special residential courses should be organized for teachers of schools situated in isolated rural communities.

The Status of Teachers

49. The appointment and promotion of teachers should be made on merit alone.
50. Teachers should enjoy the maximum security of tenure, and sanctions should be applied only by the appropriate authorities in accordance with existing regulations.
51. Teachers should receive adequate remuneration for their work, comparable to that received by other government servants of similar qualifications.
52. Every country should aim at the ultimate establishment of a single salary scale for teachers, based on qualifications, length of service and type of work. Such a scale should be the same for men and women teachers.
53. Promotion possibilities and salary scales should be devised to ensure that the majority of teachers receive a salary in the middle of the salary scale.
54. Allowances, such as family and transport allowances and allowances for children's education, should be granted to teachers.
55. The recognized rights of teaching staff should include not only lodging allowances, but also paid leave in the event of sickness, maternity benefits for women teachers, adequate old age provisions, accident insurance and social security for widows and children.
56. In remote or isolated communities, arrangements should be made for the adequate accommodation of the teaching staff;

in some cases, the payment of a remote allowance is justified.

57. In countries in which private schools receive financial assistance from the government, means should be considered for ensuring that teaching staff are qualified and trained, and receive salaries suited to their qualifications.

58. The co-operation of professional teachers' associations is indispensable in every aspect of education. The establishment of such associations and their activities should be encouraged, and their representatives should be associated in the planning of education and in all matters concerning teachers' welfare.

THE CURRICULUM

59. Compulsory primary education cannot succeed unless the quality of education is considerably improved, and unless the curriculum of primary schools is thoroughly revised and recast to meet adequately the sociological and psychological needs of children and the needs of the community. It is therefore recommended that, in formulating curricula for primary schools, the following general considerations should be borne in mind by all those who are concerned with this problem:
    (a) In all curriculum construction, the emphasis should be on the child and the means of helping him to be an effective contributing member of his society in all stages of his development;
    (b) Curriculum construction does not involve merely the determination of content, but also the proper methods of teaching;
    (c) Curriculum reform should not be envisaged as merely the addition of new subjects to the curriculum or of new subject matter under existing heads. There should be a careful examination of the existing content from the point of view of its significance for modern life and its relevance to the needs and the psychology of children. This would involve the elimination of much subject matter which has continued to be included owing to mental inertia, but which is not essential in a modern context;
    (d) From the point of view of providing effective education for children, it is sounder to concentrate on the teaching of comparatively few things well and thoroughly, and on keeping alive the curiosity and mental alertness of children, rather than attempting to teach an overloaded curriculum in a mechanical manner;
    (e) In the formulation of the curriculum, due regard should

be paid to the guiding principles of *simplicity*, *co-ordination* of subject matter among the different fields of study, and *elasticity*, which would enable the teachers to organize instruction in terms of local, group and individual needs;

(f) Curriculum planning should be sufficiently flexible to foster local freedom of initiative and encourage teachers, inspectors and other supervising officers to adapt the curriculum to particular needs;

(g) In the earlier stages of education, the curriculum should in the main be conceived in the form of units of activity based on projects, life situations and practical constructive work, rather than as units of information, to be imparted only through the written and spoken word.

60. The curriculum should be related to social and economic conditions and problems of environment. It should thus pay particular attention to such problems as health education, the provision of work and experience of a pre-vocational character, as well as to co-operative recreational activities.

61. While the curriculum should be based on the child's environment and help him in the acquisition of locally useful skills, it should also lead him, through critical thinking and the exercise of his imaginative powers, to appreciate his wider world.

62. The curriculum and the whole world of the school as a social community should be oriented towards making good citizens, conscious of the best in their national heritage, but willing and able to assess it critically so as to eliminate any unworthy features that may exist, such as intolerance between racial or religious groups, or disrespect for manual work. Further, the curriculum should lead, however simply, to the concept of the nation as an integral part of the world community of people.

63. The curriculum and methods of teaching should be so devised as to secure the active and intelligent participation of the child at all stages of his education, whether teaching is by projects or through regular lessons, and whether the aptitudes to be developed are verbal or manual.

64. Instruction in the primary school should invariably be in the mother tongue, unless special circumstances, such as a very small number of children in the locality or the existence of a very large number of undeveloped dialects in a region, make it impossible.

65. In the curriculum of the primary school, the fullest importance should be given to the interpretation of spiritual and moral values. The place and methods of religious education in the achievement of this object will have to be decided by each country in the light of its special needs and circumstances, but

tolerance for differences of views should form an essential part of all education.

66. In view of the fact that retardation of pupils from class to class discourages continuance in school, increases costs, and lowers the achievement of those retarded, it is proposed that more attention should be paid to the problem of retardation, so that normally all pupils may be promoted regularly from class to class.
67. In so far as compulsory schooling and fundamental education have a common goal—improvement of personal and community living—they should be related through such means as joint school community attacks upon community problems, co-ordinated planning of compulsory and fundamental education, reasonable participation of primary school teachers in the programme of fundamental education, and the use of primary schools as centres of community activity and adult education.
68. The attention of States is directed to the utilization for the improvement of primary education of materials produced by Unesco regional and national Fundamental Education Centres and by the Unesco Education Clearing House.
69. In view of the urgent need for curriculum improvement and for drastic changes in teaching methods, it is recommended that many agencies and groups be utilized for the purpose:
    (a) Teacher educating institutions should be encouraged to establish centres to demonstrate improved curricula and teaching methods, to offer refresher courses on methods of teaching and to foster research and experimentation on curriculum problems;
    (b) Various appropriate authorities, public or private, should be encouraged to prepare suitable publications which would contribute to improved curricula and classroom methods;
    (c) Special committees of teachers and other field workers should be established to study problems of instruction relating to individual subjects or activities, or problems of special concern to teachers, such as the development of community co-operation, the encouragement of student participation and the use of free and inexpensive materials in teaching;
    (d) Various community agencies should be associated with the work of curriculum revision whenever their co-operation gives promise of furthering the aims of compulsory education.
    (e) Educational research institutes should be encouraged to study curriculum improvement problems;
    (f) Model demonstration and experimental schools should be fostered.

70. An adequate curriculum requiring activity methods of learning, including those involving productive work, cannot be put into effect without appropriate supplies and equipment, both for the child and the teacher. Accordingly, the problem of supplies and equipment needed to make curricula effective should be examined, and suitable action taken to prepare or procure the necessary items.
71. In order to counteract the undue influence on education of external examinations, teachers should be trained in methods of testing their own teaching, more stress should be given in evaluating a pupil's achievement to the whole record of his work throughout his primary school course, and external examinations, if not abolished entirely, should be on an optional basis.
72. Exhibition and the exchange of children's books should be fostered in order to improve standards of production and content, through comparison with the products of other countries.
73. As the initiative and effectiveness of teachers is reduced by such factors as large classes, inadequate and unsuitable accommodation, and excessive clerical work, education authorities should seek to facilitate and improve teaching by removing such limitations.
74. Each school should be helped in making its educational programme realistic in terms of the community's practical needs. It should study such problems as impurity of water, the incidence of disease and losses through forest fires, and should organize social service activities for community improvement with adult co-operation.
75. Recognizing the great difficulties inherent in the problem of providing compulsory primary education for all children, it is recommended that a variety of methods and proposals be explored for adjusting the length of the school day, for grouping children into various sized groups for different aspects of their school work, for using existing school buildings for a longer time, and for otherwise adjusting plans so as to enable the maximum number of children to be covered by a programme of compulsory education at the earliest possible date. Such adjustments will, of course, necessitate modifying the curriculum in accordance with any plan accepted.
76. While it is advisable that central educational authorities should give general direction with regard to primary school curricula it is essential that local school systems should enjoy considerable freedom in the formulation of their own curricula and in experimenting with new curricula and methods. Teachers should be encouraged to take an active part in such curriculum formulation and experimentation.

INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE

77. While the Conference agrees that the development of free and compulsory education in the spirit of the Universal Declaration of Human Rights is primarily a responsibility of the States and of the Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories, it is of the opinion that the problem in view of its urgency and enormity in this backward region, is of no less international concern and calls for co-operative regional and international action.
78. The Conference is of the opinion that the extension of free and compulsory education is fundamental to all plans for economic development, and therefore should be given full consideration and the requisite priority in all national and international schemes. It is convinced that development of economic resources of this region and the extension of educational facilities are inseparably connected and must proceed side by side.
79. Member States and Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories in this region are accordingly invited to draw up during 1953 and 1954 their long-term general plans for the extension of free and compulsory education, indicating in necessary detail the first phase, which is to be taken in hand immediately. The short-term plans should also indicate specific projects of high priority, which in their entirety are beyond the financial resources of the States concerned. In these projects, recurring and non-recurring expenditure should be indicated separately with regard to such items as school buildings and equipment, teacher training, school meals and health services etc.
80. This Conference has noted with deep appreciation the various forms of technical and financial assistance that have been made available through Unesco from international organizations and from advanced Member States for the extension of primary education in this region. On the basis of a careful survey, the Conference is convinced that unless substantial financial assistance either in the form of grant or low-interest long-term loans is forthcoming for this region pending full development of its own economic resources, the expectation of this Conference in regard to speedy progress of free and compulsory education is not likely to be fulfilled within a reasonable period. The Conference accordingly urges that Unesco may actively explore the possibility of securing adequate assistance from various agencies and sources available for the purpose.
81. In formulating their plans, Member States and Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories in the region are

invited, if they so wish, to call upon the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization to offer technical assistance in the laying down and execution of those plans, in the training of teachers, supervisors and administrative officers and in the formulation and adaptation of school curricula. For this purpose, they are invited to formulate experimental projects in primary education and teacher training, to set up pilot projects of educational development within limited areas, to conduct national seminars for the training of personnel and for carrying out research and experiments in the field of the curriculum and methods of primary education.

82. Member States and Administering Powers of Non-Self-Governing Territories in the region are further invited, if they so wish, to call upon the assistance of the United Nations Organization, the Food and Agriculture Organization, the World Health Organization and the United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund, and the United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization for purposes of formulating plans for such matters as the welfare of families of needy schoolchildren, school meals and health services, for purposes of drafting curricula for health and agricultural education, and for the teaching of handicrafts and home economics, in the primary and upper primary schools.

83. Member States of the region are invited to solicit the help of the regional inter-governmental organizations and other governmental or private agencies for promoting and financing such programmes.

84. The United Nations Educational, Scientific and Cultural Organization is requested to co-ordinate such requests and to enter into negotiation with the Technical Assistance Board and with the organizations mentioned in 82 and 83 for the purposes of planning suitable schemes in response to requests from Member States and for sending missions of experts for assisting in the application of such schemes.

85. At the request of countries which decide to review their system of educational administration so that it may be equal to the task of promoting compulsory education, Unesco should invite member countries and intergovernmental organizations to consider facilitating assistance such as the following:
    (a) Advisory services of administrative experts attached to national or State headquarters;
    (b) Secondment of experienced local administrators to assist in the establishment of 'pilot local education authorities' in countries considering a local administrative system;
    (c) The provision of administrative fellowships to enable offi-

cials to gain experience in other countries where problems of establishing compulsory education have been solved.

86. Unesco should explore the possibility of establishing, and urge appropriate agencies within the region to establish, one or more small compulsory education bureaux whose functions might include:
    (a) The interchange of information and data relating to the educational needs of the region;
    (b) The conduct of comparative research into the problems of compulsory education;
    (c) The circulation of ideas between countries within the region;
    (d) The promotion of regular consultation between Ministers and/or officials engaged in the application of compulsory education plans within the region;
    (e) The following-up of appropriate recommendations of this Regional Conference.

87. Measures such as the following should be considered for encouraging sound yet economical school building:
    (a) Unesco should be requested to promote practical research as to the most suitable types of school buildings within the region and publish the results at regular intervals;
    (b) The Regional Compulsory Education Bureaux referred to in Recommendation No. 86 should encourage the exchange of data concerning school building within the region.

88. Member States are invited to study the possibilities of entering into bilateral or multilateral agreements providing for mutual assistance in free and compulsory education in such fields as the following:
    (a) Exchange of information on developments and experiments in free and compulsory education, in primary education, in teacher training etc;
    (b) Exchange of fellowships and scholarships for educators and students in the administration of education, in primary education and in teacher training;
    (c) Exchange of teachers and professors of teachers' colleges;
    (d) Sending of experts;
    (e) Assistance in the supply of equipment;
    (f) Any other assistance agreed upon, whether technical or financial.

    Such provisions might form the subject of a special agreement or be a part of a general cultural agreement between two or more States.

89. Unesco is requested to continue its efforts in the field of free and compulsory education by utilizing the resources of both

its regular and its Technical Assistance programmes in carrying out activities such as the following:

(a) Conducting studies and encouraging research in the fields of compulsory education and allied fields;
(b) Holding regional or international seminars on one or more aspects of compulsory education (administration and finance, curriculum, teacher training, etc.);
(c) Assisting Member States in holding national seminars on these subjects;
(d) Sending expert missions to advise on these subjects;
(e) Granting fellowships and scholarships in the field of compulsory education and allied fields, including the production of instructional materials;
(f) Assisting and advising in the development of compulsory education schemes;
(g) Assisting and advising in the development of teacher training schemes;
(h) Sponsoring the sending of exhibits of children's books and instructional material to Member States.

90. Unesco is requested to collect and disseminate information on topics connected with free and compulsory education, particularly as regards the following:

(a) Sponsoring pilot projects in compulsory education where a lead would be given to the organization of research in problems of compulsory education;
(b) Information about successful administrative procedures which have resulted in impressive achievement on compulsory education;
(c) Documentation about the legal aspects of compulsory education which would help Member States in the region to draft or improve their educational legislation;
(d) Information as to research on curricula and descriptions of experimental programmes in Member States.

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WORKING PAPER ON INTERNATIONAL ASSISTANCE IN THE FIELD OF FREE AND COMPULSORY EDUCATION

At the Fourteenth International Conference on Public Education, held in Geneva in July 1951, Unesco was asked to formulate in consultation with Member States and appropriate United Nations agencies a programme of international assistance in the field of free and compulsory education. Such a programme would co-ordinate all sources of available assistance and explore the possibility of loans and the raising of funds from voluntary contributions. It was suggested that plans for technical assistance should give priority to free and compulsory schooling. The conference requested the Director-General of Unesco to continue his policy of study and research into the problems of free and compulsory education, of sending missions to Member States, of granting fellowships and studying the possibility of bilateral and multilateral agreements in this respect.

The Second Regional Conference of National Commissions, held at Bangkok in November–December 1951, requested the Director-General to explore the possibility of securing financial assistance in the form of long-term loans to Member States who are pledged to a systematic plan for the promotion of universal free and compulsory education.

The Director-General has explored, with the relevant United Nations agencies, the possibilities of their participation in the programme of free and compulsory education, and has at the same time studied the possibilities of financial assistance in this respect. The following paper is intended to give a preliminary outline of available assistance from international sources. It is by no means exhaustive. Further explorations in this regard will be continued.

The paper will be in two parts: assistance of a technical nature; possibilities of financial assistance.

ASSISTANCE OF A TECHNICAL NATURE

The Director-General requested the following organizations to inform him as to the possible assistance they could offer both on their normal and on their Technical Assistance programmes for the

application of free and compulsory education in Member States: Food and Agriculture Organization (FAO); International Labour Organisation (ILO); The United Nations Social Affairs Department; The United Nations International Children's Emergency Fund (Unicef); World Health Organization (WHO).

The following are summaries of the answers received. No answer had been received from Unicef at the time of writing this document.

Food and Agricultural Organization

While FAO has a general interest in all forms of educational development, it is particularly concerned with the agricultural, home economics and nutritional phases of such development. As far as resources allow, it is ready to advise member governments regarding training at all levels in these particular fields. Requests for technical assistance in the training of teachers and for programme development in agriculture, home economics and nutrition, will be given sympathetic consideration and fulfilled to the extent its policy which is concerned with the granting of technical assistance to underdeveloped countries, permits. In addition to expert personnel, a limited number of fellowships for training abroad and some demonstration equipment may be provided in connexion with the approved projects.

International Labour Organisation

The activities undertaken by ILO within its proper sphere of competence having a bearing on the development of free and compulsory education are often complementary to the action undertaken by Unesco, and the co-operation of the two organizations in this field maximizes the value of the aid which can be rendered to governments.

Handicrafts and Village Industries. ILO is now offering assistance with respect to handicrafts and village industries within the Unesco fundamental education projects in various countries, such as Ceylon and Thailand in South-East Asia. This assistance both advises upon the type of handicrafts and small industries which might be economically useful in a given region and locality, and offers training of teachers of these handicrafts and village industries in fundamental education projects.

Services of this kind could be extended to compulsory education projects carried on by Unesco if it were so agreed by the two organizations and the governments concerned. This could be done either in connexion with existing or projected fundamental projects or, in

some instances, in relation to compulsory education projects which could utilize the services of handicraft experts in similar fashion.

ILO would be interested in such projects within the framework of the Technical Assistance Programme. In addition, under the regular programme, some preliminary advice might be made available from experts on handicrafts operating from regular field offices of ILO, where these have been established in the region.

Child Labour as related to Compulsory School Attendance. ILO has always recognized the close relation between the minimum age permitted under regulations of admission to employment and the age up to which school attendance may be required under compulsory school regulations. Various conventions, recommendations and resolutions adopted by the International Labour Conference refer to and develop that relationship. Similar recommendations adopted by the International Conference on Public Instruction under the auspices of Unesco and the Bureau of International Education have emphasized the same point. It has been pointed out that both the legal requirements and the administrative agencies established for their enforcement can profit mutually by close co-ordination.

ILO is giving technical assistance to governments with respect to the protection of children and young workers under labour laws relating to all types of employment, i.e., in industrial, non-industrial, agricultural and maritime occupations. Services of experts and fellowships are being made available to study conditions, advise on legislation and assist in the development of administrative services to promote the regulation of the employment of children and young persons. For the most part, such assistance is developed within the framework of the Technical Assistance Programme and it is given in relation to similar aid to both adult and young workers, especial attention, nevertheless, being given to young persons in certain of these projects.

The co-ordination of such services from ILO with those being offered by Unesco to promote compulsory free education would be highly useful to governments in view of the interrelation indicated above. A technical Meeting on the Protection of Young Workers in Asian Countries was scheduled for 1–10 December 1952, in Kandy, Ceylon. In this session ILO sought to discuss this question with a view to assisting governments of Asian countries to develop further programmes along these lines.

UNITED NATIONS SOCIAL AFFAIRS DEPARTMENT

The Social Affairs Department of the United Nations approaches

the problem of free and compulsory education from the standpoint of children and family welfare and of all the social services that could be offered in order to foster the development of children and to make free and compulsory education more workable.

The Social Commission at its eighth session considered two papers on matters relating to family and child welfare: 'An integrated programme for meeting the needs of children' (E/CN.5/256), 'Extension of measures relating to maternity, infant and child care' (E/CN.5/257).

In each of the above-mentioned papers there was some emphasis on the interrelationship of the various elements that go to make up the comprehensive child welfare service. The needs of children in the fields of health, nutrition, education, care and protection cannot be considered in isolation, any more than can the measures which seek to meet these various needs.

The Technical Working Group on Long-Range Activities for Children, appointed in 1951 by the Administrative Committee on Co-ordination and representing United Nations including Unicef and the Specialized Agencies concerned, started by making a statement on these lines, and is continuing to develop the theme.

It is accordingly a matter of great satisfaction that Unesco, in approaching the questions of free and compulsory education, has recognized the social responsibilities inherent in a broadly conceived educational programme, and appreciates not only what that means in terms of services to be provided through schools but also its implications for the social training of teachers and for the appropriate training of social workers who will work in co-operation with schools.

The Social Commission has accepted the view that not enough is yet known about the way in which child welfare programmes actually operate in less developed areas and has agreed to assist requesting governments in three such areas to assess their existing services and work out a comprehensive national programme, with recommendations as to ways in which international assistance could be given most effectively. One such study is about to be undertaken.

In examining this matter from the educational standpoint we should expect that regard would be had to the following considerations. Every child would be considered as an individual whose whole personality was undergoing a process of rapid development. The total needs of a child, his physical welfare, his emotional stability, his social attitudes—have to be taken into account if he is to receive a sound education. It is likewise accepted that the best possible environment for growing children is provided by a normal family. Parental love, the feeling of belonging and a secure home are powerful and constructive elements in the integration of a

child's personality and in his preparation for useful citizenship. The school would be regarded as a place not only where literacy and culture are imparted but also where the young can be trained in healthy living and in community life. Thus an interchange of responsibility as between the school, the family and the community must be evolved if children are to achieve a balanced development.

Compulsory education is of great concern to social welfare programmes, since it prepares a large segment of the population for the further knowledge and skill required for full participation in community development, and provides the opportunity for special measures which, until this century, would scarcely have been regarded appropriate for inclusion in educational policies. These include provisions for school meals, school medical inspection and treatment, development of out-of-school activities, child guidance services and so on. Gradually it has been shown that responsibility for education of children involves also responsibility for their general well-being. The effective discharge of one programme proves impossible without undertaking the other.

The need is to make school welfare programmes everywhere more comprehensive. School nurses, visiting teachers, or school care committee workers, through enquiries and home-visiting, bridge the gap between the family, the school and the various groups that make up community life.

Social work has developed as a conscious response to social problems and to those attempts to solve them that were already taking place. Social workers are equipped to play a role in the whole programme of the schools and in some countries have become a basic factor in the skilled treatment of children.

The United Nations is aware that the success of educational programmes is largely dependent on the availability of trained personnel not merely for teaching but also for helping families to resolve the problems which may lead to children's non-attendance at school, or that impair the children's progress while attending school, or that affect their health and balance.

The United Nations is also aware that most countries and regions, South Asia not excepted, do not have at present sufficient professional social workers to cope with this among the many pressing social problems. Means have to be devised for supplementing professional workers by auxiliaries with limited training, as also by including aspects of social welfare in the training of other types of professional staff.

The United Nations has therefore placed in its priority list a study of the training of auxiliary workers and has arranged for a meeting of experts from various parts of South Asia, to be held at Gandhi Gram, Madras, in December of this year. The meeting

is expected to examine the precise functions for which auxiliaries have been used and may be used effectively, particularly as regards programmes affecting children. This meeting is the first of a series of such meetings to be held during 1952–54. The subsequent meetings will be in Latin America, the Middle East and Africa. The question of training auxiliary personnel to assist in the education programme might be a suitable topic to include at these and similar meetings.

The United Nations would be willing to advise governments on training programmes intended to accelerate the supply of such personnel, both auxiliary and professional, and on ways of using them to ensure their effectiveness and adequate coverage of services. The United Nations would also be willing to broaden welfare programmes, such as community development, in order to achieve maximum economy of staff and resources.

It is important therefore that individual governments should co-ordinate their requests for technical assistance in order to ensure that the social welfare aspects of each are presented to the United Nations and the specialized agencies in an integrated manner and that these are well integrated within their national programmes.

World Health Organization

WHO can give technical advisory services, fellowships and in some cases supplies and equipment for demonstration projects, within the limits of its budget, to assist governments in the following ways.

Health and Sanitation Services for Schools. The objectives here should be: (a) to organize and administer periodic and regular health examinations and a system of health records for school children; to encourage measures to promote good health and to make provision for adequate medical and dental care (administered as part of the health services of the community, in co-operation with the school authorities) and to make special provision, as necessary, for children who have physical, mental, emotional or social handicaps; (b) to ensure that school buildings and their surroundings provide healthy conditions for children and that suitable standards of environmental sanitation, appropriate to local conditions, are maintained therein.

Standards and Methods for Training Health Workers. The objectives are: to ensure that the health problems of school children are recognized and given a place in the curricula of medical and nursing schools and in the training of other health workers, and that supplementary or specialized training in these problems is given, as

necessary, to doctors, nurses and health workers who have particular responsibility for the health of the school children.

Health Curricula for Schools. The objectives are: to ensure that teaching about health is included, where appropriate, in the school curriculum (natural and social sciences, physical education, domestic science etc.); that the curriculum makes suitable provision for rest and recreation, and that both the teaching and other activities of the school encourage habits conducive to physical and mental health.

The Prevention and Control of Communicable Diseases. The objectives are: to ensure that the co-operation of the teachers and superintendents and the use of school facilities are enlisted by the health authorities for work in the detection of, and immunization against communicable diseases, and in other campaigns for their control.

Nutrition Programmes for Schools. This involves co-operation with FAO and the objective would be: to organize and administer the provision of complete or supplementary meals in the schools, where appropriate, and to use this programme to promote the understanding and acceptance of good nutrition, making use of local products as far as possible.

Teacher-training. The objectives here would be: to ensure that the principles of hygiene and the promotion of good health (including mental health) are included in the curricula of universities, training colleges and other institutions which train teachers and administrators, and that supplementary or specialized training in these subjects is given, where necessary, to teachers and administrators.

Unesco

Unesco will attempt to assist member states both in its normal and Technical Assistance Programmes, in the following types of activities:

Regional Conferences. Unesco is plannng a series of regional conferences to follow the one on free and compulsory education in South Asia and the Pacific being held in Bombay. A second conference will be held in the Middle East in 1954. A third in Latin America in 1956, a fourth in Africa in 1958, and if possible, a fifth in the Far East in 1960. These conferences will aim at surveying the situation as regards primary, free and compulsory schooling in the countries of the regions and analyse problems of the full application of free and compulsory education and to consider

possible methods of action for realizing it. The conclusions and recommendations of each of the regional conferences will be brought to bear on the subsequent ones.

Regional Seminars. While the regional conferences will be directed towards practical action in the field of compulsory education and are addressed to the higher authorities of Ministries of Education and of the State which control the policies in regard to free and compulsory education, regional seminars will be of longer duration and will be directed towards that portion of the staffs of ministries and departments of education which will be charged with the actual detailed application of free and compulsory education. Among these would be the directors of primary education, State and district inspectors, heads and professors of teacher training institutions, educational research officers and primary school headmasters. The seminars will take the form of training in and study of the questions and problems of compulsory education. Such training will be given along three lines: administration and finance of compulsory education; training of teachers; adaptation of the curriculum and methods of primary school.

National Services. Unesco will endeavour to assist state governments which want to hold their own seminars by helping them in the planning, by sending an expert to participate, and by supplying documentation and information.

Study of the Problems of Compulsory Education. Unesco has already undertaken such studies for all the sovereign states of South Asia and the Pacific, except Burma, Nepal and Afghanistan. Five of these have already been published—Australia, India, New Zealand, Philippines and Thailand—while four others—Cambodia, Ceylon, Laos and Viet-Nam—are being presented in roneographed form to this conference. A summary of the study on Indonesia is being supplied to the conference pending the completion of its translation from Indonesian to English and French. A study on Pakistan is being prepared. It is possible that some Member States will need more detailed studies and research which would contribute towards planning their campaigns. Unesco will consider request for such studies sympathetically.

Provision of Experts. Under the Technical Assistance Programme, Unesco will send experts to Member States at their request to assist in the planning and execution of compulsory education programmes, to advise on teacher training, or actually to participate in the training of teachers and to advise on curriculum construction.

Experimental Projects. Certain states may want to apply free and compulsory education on an experimental basis within a limited area, in order to gain experience and to study the nature of problems arising from the full application of compulsory education Unesco would assist in the planning and execution of such pilot or experimental projects.

Fellowships and Scholarships. A limited number of fellowships in primary and compulsory education, in teacher training and in curricula making, will be granted as part of the technical assistance projects in these fields.

Equipment. A limited amount of equipment can be supplied to assist in the establishment of experimental and demonstration schools and in teacher training institutions.

The Education Clearing House of Unesco will be ready to supply information on compulsory primary education, teacher training and curricula making emanating from other countries.

POSSIBILITIES OF FINANCIAL ASSISTANCE

The attention of the Regional Conference on Free and Compulsory Education in South Asia and the Pacific, is drawn to a proposed plan for financing economic development which is now under discussion in the United Nations, and which might in due course lead to the provision of financial assistance for programmes of free and compulsory education.

The United Nations Plan. Since 1950, both the United Nations General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council have had under consideration proposals and plans for establishing a 'Special Fund for grants-in-aid and for low-interest long-term loans to underdeveloped countries for the purpose of helping them, at their request, to accelerate their economic development and to finance non-self-liquidating projects'.

The General Assembly, at its Sixth Session in 1951, underlined the fact that detailed plans for action designed to increase the flow of international public funds for the development of underdeveloped countries, and especially for assistance in the financing of non-self-liquidating projects basic to their economic development, must be initiated without delay if such plans are to be translated into action within a reasonable period of time. It therefore recommended that the Economic and Social Council should submit

to the General Assembly at its Seventh Regular Session (1952) a detailed plan for establishing, as soon as circumstances permit, a Special Fund for this purpose (resolution 520 (VI) A).

The Council at its Fourteenth Session debated this proposal at great length and delegates were divided as to the practicability of obtaining contributions for such a fund at the present time. In view of the complex nature of the task and of the shortness of time, the Council could not itself prepare the detailed plan called for by the General Assembly. It therefore established a committee of nine persons for this purpose (resolution 416 (XIV) A).

This committee will complete its report to the Council by 1 March 1953, and if the proposals in the report are approved by the Council at its Fifteenth Session, they will be transmitted to the General Assembly at its Eighth Session. If the General Assembly approves the plan, the machinery for the Special Fund will be established in 1954 and the contributions to the Fund invited.

In the meantime the General Assembly at its Seventh Session, on an interim report by the Secretary-General, gave further attention to the proposal—while expressing no judgment until such time as a detailed plan was before it—and approved a resolution which recalls 'the particular need, in the state of tension which now prevails throughout the world, to devote special attention to the problem of the international financing of economic and *social* development, and to solve it through international action within the framework of the United Nations'.

Proposals for Unesco Action. The United Nations plan is of direct relevance to Unesco's campaign for free and compulsory education, since the extension of primary education is basic to economic development, and since the purpose of the Fund is to finance non-self-liquidating projects, among which primary education programmes should be accorded a high priority. Accordingly the Executive Board submitted a draft resolution to the General Conference of Unesco at its Seventh Session held in Paris, November–December 1952.

The General Conference adopted the resolution (1.233) as follows:

'Member States concerned are invited:

to make by 1954 financial plans for the introduction of free and compulsory education in suitable stages. These plans should indicate what each government would be prepared to contribute financially, how the continuing running costs would be met, and what part of the Programme would call for external financing. These plans would be available for consideration if and when the United Nations proposals at present being discussed by that Or-

ganization for assisting underdeveloped countries and for financing non-self-liquidating projects of economic development take shape, as justification for possible applications for financial assistance;

to pay particular attention, in connexion with the United Nations proposals, to school buildings, school equipment, school meals, health services and teacher training.

'The Director-General is authorized:

to extend any expert assistance which the General Assembly and the Economic and Social Council may require of Unesco in the formulation of the United Nations proposals;

to assist Member States, at their request, in the preparation of financial plans for free and compulsory education, including the provision of Technical Assistance missions.'

This resolution was intended to help Member States who wish to apply for assistance in drawing up educational plans. It was not intended to oblige states to draw up immediately plans whereby free and compulsory education is to be completed in one stage, thus committing themselves to an unrealistic long-term financial statement.

On the assumption that the United Nations plan will not be maturing before the end of 1954, Member States attending the present regional conference are urged to utilize the intervening two years in drawing up detailed plans for the development of free and compulsory education within their territories, indicating clearly the estimated amounts which they intend to spend on compulsory education and the types of such expenditure. At the same time, such plans should indicate the types and amounts of international assistance needed. Such assistance could be in the form of contributions of materials for school building, of school equipment, school meals and medical care, and assistance in the development of teacher training.

It is thought that one or more resolutions by this conference would provide a sound basis for future action in this respect.

APPENDIX D

READING LIST

The following list is intended to provide the reader with some sources from which additional information can be obtained on the problems and scope of education in the countries and territories dealt with in this volume. The annual reports of the ministries and departments of education, which give details of current educational developments, have been omitted, since reference to them is hardly necessary. Most of the publications included in the general section may serve as background material on the subject of compulsory schooling.

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